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ABSTRACT

This study documents the innovative utilization of resources in 16 exemplary schools and provides recommendations for staff deployment and school organization. Two introductory chapters place the report in the context of a wider study of which it is part and describe its conceptual framework. The following two chapters review the debate on case study research and discuss the organization, purposes, and methodology of this study. Chapter 5 offers brief descriptions of the schools selected, and the following five chapters analyze distinctive approaches to key processes in these schools: procedures for allocating students and teachers; aspects of teacher contact time; involvement of parents, support staff, community, and students in the teaching program; aspects of school program offerings; and policy determination processes. Chapter 11 investigates the effects of unique organizational characteristics of four alternative schools, and the closing chapter offers policy options including more flexible school staff configurations, new methods of attracting experienced teachers to isolated schools, alternative school structures to accommodate small numbers of senior students, the use of team teaching to create additional noncontact time for primary teachers, greater flexibility of class sizes, and careful formulation, implementation, and evaluation of school aims. (MJL)

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PATTERNS OF SCHOOL ORGANIZATION:

RESOURCES AND RESPONSES IN SIXTEEN SCHOOLS

Staffing and Resources Study Report No. 3

Andrew Sturman

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
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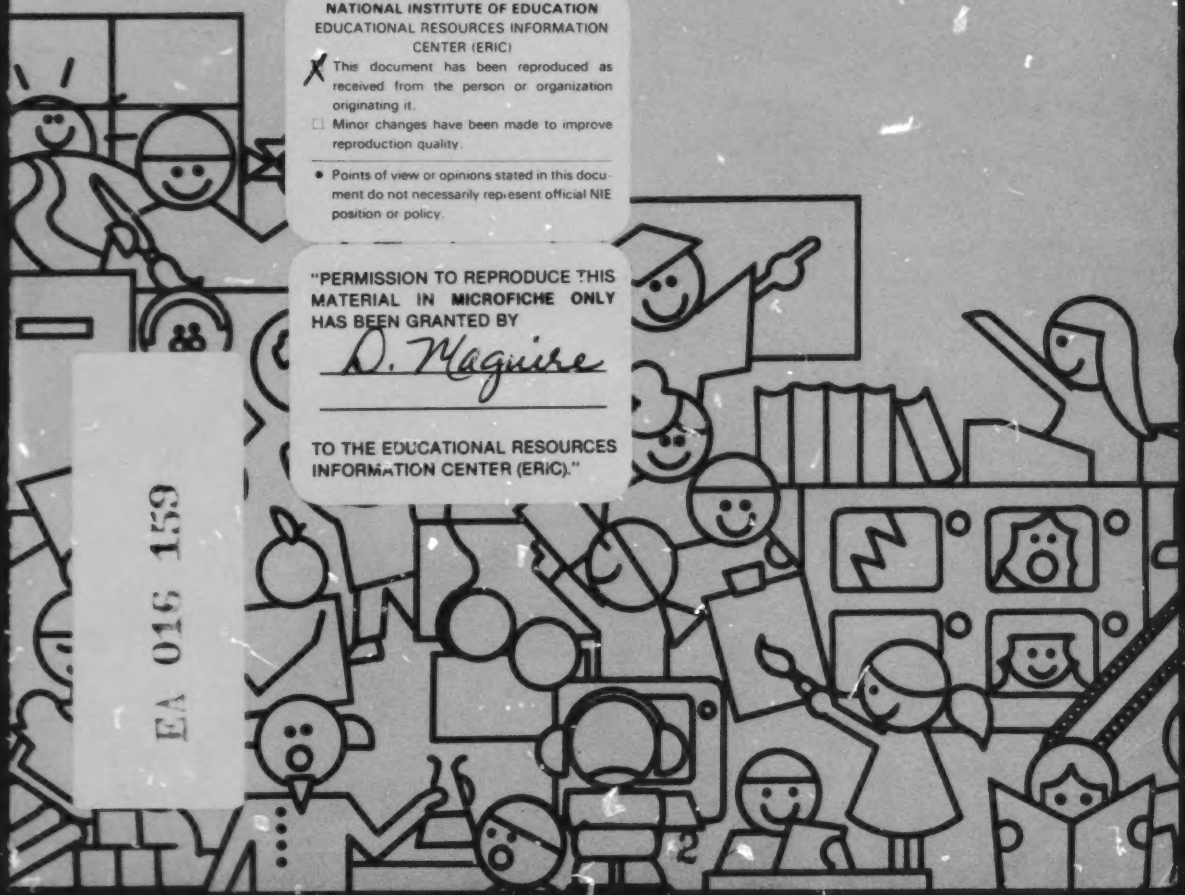

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Staffing and Resources Study
Report No. 3

Andrew Sturman

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This report examines the responses made in 16 specially selected schools either to achieve specific educational aims or to take account of certain constraints operating on the school. The report is concerned both with the patterns of resource allocation resulting from these influences or constraints as well as the school policy determination processes that led to the responses. The purpose of the report, in very general terms, is to document the extent to which the experience of these 16 schools can offer guidelines to other schools and to education departments with regard to resource deployment and internal school organization.

The data used for this report were collected as part of a study of staffing and resources in government schools in Australia and New Zealand. The following section of this chapter is concerned with the relationship of the case study phase of the project to the other components of the Staffing and Resources Study.

Relationship of Case Studies to Other Components of the Staffing and Resources Study

The Staffing and Resources Study was funded by the Australian Education Council and conducted by the Australian Council for Educational Research. Initially, the Study had seven terms of reference designed to guide it:

1 To examine existing policies, procedures and trends relating to the allocation of staff and resources to and within Australian and New Zealand schools.

2 To inquire into difficulties faced by school systems and schools in allocating staff and resources to and within schools.

3 To examine measures that are being taken at the present time at various levels to overcome these difficulties.

4 To review new developments and alternative arrangements in staffing schools.

5 To recommend action which can be taken by schools and school systems to improve existing arrangements or overcome problems experienced in staffing schools.

6 To recommend appropriate field studies or action research projects which school systems can carry out and which will enable the trying out of creative and practical ways of reorganizing staff at the school level.

7 To develop proposals which school systems in the longer term might adopt for the future direction of policies and procedures concerning the allocation of staff and resources to and within schools.

In the original proposal for the Study, the Australian Education Council also listed nine contemporary issues related to the terms of reference:

- the balance between primary and secondary staffing allocations;
- the determination of staffing formulae;
- alternative methods of staffing in use of aides, specialists, ancillary staff, part-time teachers;
- teacher work load and non-contact time;
- flexibility in deploying staff within schools;
- implications for staffing policy of various philosophies and methodologies of teaching;
- effects of alternative staffing arrangements;
- system awareness of and responsiveness to the needs of individual schools;
- regionalism and staff allocation principles and procedures.

Recognizing that there were some policies and procedures that could not be changed, the Study was to seek to identify those policies and practices that were malleable and that could be changed or modified to benefit schools, teachers and students within schools. Although the research was not designed as a sophisticated multivariate evaluation of the effectiveness of different policies and practices (this had however been considered as a possibility in the proposal), implicit in the terms of reference, the contemporary issues, and the proposal was the desire to seek ways to make schools and schooling more effective. It was argued in the proposal, given present economic constraints:

> Under these circumstances attention has turned to questions which go beyond providing 'more of the same kind' to considering alternative arrangements for allocating staff and resources to schools. (Keeves and Williams, 1978:1)

Also implicit in the terms of reference was the necessity to conduct a study at two levels. The first dimension was at the level of school systems and involved a study of those policies that allocate staff and resources to schools, and of the effects on schools of these policies. The second was at the level of the school and involved a study of the practices within schools arising from these system-level staffing decisions, and of the adaptive behaviours that schools develop to adjust to the policies of allocation of staff and resources that the school system employs. It was considered important not only that current policies and practices should be examined, but that alternative procedures and practices considered by schools, although not implemented, should also be investigated.

System-level Staffing Policies

In the proposal it was stated:

> System is used in the sense of the system of government primary and secondary schools administered by State Departments of Education in the six Australian

States, the Australian Capital Territory and the Northern Territory, and the analogous national system which exists in New Zealand. System-level policies are policies controlling the allocation of staff and resources to schools, policies developed and administered by the central state or national educational authority. Such policies may include some which require that schools deploy staff and resources as directed and thus remove from schools the opportunity to make their own decisions regarding the use of staff and resources. (Keeves and Williams, 1978:4)

For this stage of the Study the major research effort was focused in the different education departments and the role of the Australian Council for Educational Research was to co-ordinate this research effort, in particular to provide a general framework that would structure and guide the different research teams. By so doing a comparative analysis across the different systems, an analysis to be conducted by the Australian Council for Educational Research, was made possible.

Given this general structure to the research, three main outcomes were envisaged for the system-level study:

- a straightforward statement of system-level staffing policies;
- a comparative analysis of system-level responses to basic staffing problems across all eight systems; and
- a series of 'historical' analyses, one from each system, describing the evolution of staffing policies and focusing on the way in which the system responded to the problems and pressures unique to the State or nation.

In effect, however, the last of these suggestions was not proceeded with.

School-level Staffing Policies

In the proposal for the Study of Staffing and Resources it was stated:

> Staffing policy decisions within schools are decisions about the allocation of limited professional teaching resources. Schools would appear to differ in the extent to which they have freedom in this respect, but very little is known about the strategies they use or about the effectiveness of different patterns of the allocation of human and other resources within schools. We are similarly uninformed about other adaptive strategies devised by schools to rationalize their limited professional teaching resources; for example, those that free teachers from the more routine aspects of teaching to use their professional skills in such activities as remedial instruction, curriculum design, and the like. The use of equipment as aids to instruction, the use of students themselves to instruct others, and the involvement of members of the community in both teaching and nonteaching duties are examples that come to mind. In short, the range of adaptive mechanisms developed by schools in this context remains unexplored, and innovative approaches with potential system-wide value may be locked within particular schools or localities. (Keeves and Williams, 1978:5)

At the school-level a two-stage research effort was planned:

- the schools survey; and
- school case studies.

The schools survey. In the first stage it was planned to map the diversity of school-level responses across Australia and New Zealand using national samples of schools. It was proposed to ask schools at both the primary and secondary levels to provide information on the following general areas: the major problems that schools must face in terms of staffing; their policies and the practices that flow from them; the structural changes in school organization that have been developed in response to staffing pressures; staffing strategies devised to deal with special needs (disadvantaged students, remedial education, counselling); the allocation of ancillary staff; the use of volunteers from the community; the use made by the school of non-personnel resources; the benefits these resources provide for staff and students; and related issues.

In effect, the questionnaire developed for this level of the Study sought information, in addition to background data on the different schools, on a number of processes operating within the school and the effects of these processes:

- processes of decision making;
- procedures for allocating students to classes;
- procedures for allocating teachers to classes;
- aspects of the school program (e.g. the range of subjects offered);
- processes of involving parents, community, ancillary staff and students in the teaching program; and
- aspects of teacher contact time.

The school case studies. The second dimension of the investigation into school-level staffing policies was a series of case studies into specially selected schools. In the proposal it was argued that data from the schools survey would be used to identify 'exemplary' schools, that is, schools that appeared to have evolved unusually innovative and effective staffing policies and practices. Although the descriptive nature of the schools survey did not allow the selection of schools based on scientific criteria of effectiveness, selection did take account of the type of staffing structures developed by schools. The study of these specially selected schools served three major purposes.

- to elucidate further the six processes described in the schools survey;
- to analyse in detail the special innovative feature or features which the school had developed in order to judge its or their general value to other schools as a method of rationalizing the use of resources or the development of organizational structures; and
- to study the effects of constraints, such as school size, type of enrolment or departmental guidelines, on schools.

Taking together the two dimensions of the school-level study it was expected that final reports would provide to education departments information on school responses to system-level policies, and to schools a map of the wide range of staffing policy responses possible, along with detailed examples of how some innovative schools had responded to

particular influences or constraints. It was felt that this would give schools a source of information on which perhaps to base and modify their own policies, as well as to provide the basis for the design of further studies that would attempt a more rigorous evaluation of school-level responses.

CHAPTER 2

THE CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

The purpose of this chapter is to describe more fully the conceptual framework for the study that was carried out; in particular to show how certain research issues and the original proposal and its refinement guided the development of the framework.

Issues Arising out of Other Research

The School as an Organization

Over the past decade there has been a substantial amount of literature on what can loosely be called 'school effects'. The publication of the Coleman Report on Equality of Educational Opportunity (Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPartland, Mood, Weinfeld and York, 1966) was in many ways responsible for this proliferation, in the main because of its controversial suggestion that measured educational outcomes were largely independent of all school-to-school differences in resources. A number of subsequent studies (for example Mayeske, Wisler, Beaton, Weinfeld, Cohen, Okada, Proshek and Tabler, 1973) reanalysed the Coleman data while other studies sought to test the findings in other situations using other data. The increase in the literature was very much a response to a crisis of confidence in educational institutions, a crisis heightened by similar findings in other studies.

Many of the subsequent studies or reanalyses of the original Coleman data sought only to avoid methodological problems which it was claimed were present in the original study. However, a number of other writers challenged the very concepts and theories underlying the type of study conducted by Coleman and it is from these studies that a number of suggestions for further research has arisen. This criticism focuses on the contention that 'production function' models of education, that is, models that view the school as analogous to a firm which transforms inputs such as books, physical plant, instructional time etc. into outputs such as increments of knowledge, and change in attitudes, reveal little about the processes by which schools transform inputs into outputs. That revelation requires knowledge not just about who the relevant agents are, such as schools, States, classrooms, students, teachers, but about how each works and interacts with other agents. This in turn raises the question of the appropriate level of aggregation but as Barr and Dreeben (1977:101) have noted:

> While discussion of the production function model has pointed to the classroom as the likely place where school effects are produced, to claim that school effects are really classroom effects misconstrues the argument. Our critique of EEO (Equality of Educational Opportunity) indicates first that the characteristics of the school as

> a firm must be distinguished from inputs to it, second, individual student characteristics must be treated as the raw material; they must be built into the formulation, not ruled out of consideration. These assertions do not contend that consideration of school characteristics in their own right as part of the production process is inappropriate. The difficulty with EEO is not that it fastens on school characteristics but that it does not identify where school characteristics belong in the process of schooling.

The point that Barr and Dreeben are making is that a better understanding of the relationship between the different levels of aggregation and contextual effects is needed than that revealed by studies of the Coleman type:

> We do not say that the classroom is the important place to look, but we do say that the connection between the two research traditions is not satisfactorily drawn, as it should be. (Barr and Dreeben, 1977:102)

It is in this context that Dahllöf's (1971) concept of frame factors is relevant. It is argued by Dahllöf that many teaching process studies view teaching behaviour independently of the frame factors, and most 'production function' studies examine these factors only to the extent of their impact on learning, not on the teaching process. Dahllof argues that frame conditions limit and guide teacher behaviour - they shape but do not determine the form of the teaching process. Barr and Dreeben (1977:154) summarize this view:

> To regard schools as productive organizations means describing all their productive levels and establishing the connections among them, and identifying how events at each level constitute constraints and opportunities for what occurs at other levels.

In a similar context, Bidwell and Kasarda (1980) have argued that a major conceptual failure marks very nearly the entire school-effects literature:

> This failure is a confusion of school, an organization, with schooling, a process that individual students experience. Schools are organizations that conduct instruction. Schooling is the process through which instruction occurs. (Bidwell and Kasarda, 1980:402)

The authors propose a social organizational approach to the analysis of schooling that treats instructional units within schools as structures that distribute school resources to students. Organizational attributes of schools are viewed as affecting the resources that their instructional units provide.

The importance of viewing the school as an organizational process was highlighted also in the work conducted by the British Schools Council into Change and Innovation in an Expanding Comprehensive School (Richardson, 1975). The point was made that although the project began as a study of change and innovation:

> ... it became clear as time went on that the central issue was the nature of authority - not only the authority of the headmaster to lead but the authority of the staff to influence the way in which he exercised leadership. (Richardson, 1975:2)

The research conducted by Richardson involved one school studied over a three-year period. In discussing the introduction of new courses in the school the importance of organizational processes was stressed:

> In this kind of situation, the search for evidence about whether a particular course is succeeding or failing in its purpose becomes only a part of a larger and even more baffling problem: namely, how members of a complex staff group of over sixty people come to terms with ambiguity, uncertainty and loss of known security in the process of redefining the fundamental educational tasks to which they are collectively committed. (Richardson, 1975:47)

Musgrave (1968) in a study of the school as an organization in Britain noted that the particular structure that the bureaucracy takes in any school is in part governed by the nature of that school's goals. He argued also that certain constraints or influences may operate on these goals, constraints like the architectural character of school buildings.

The point that is being made by all the authors cited is the importance in looking at the processes that lie behind, for example, decisions to allocate resources or to allocate roles. The relationship between educational systems, schools and classrooms is viewed as important because processes operating at one level provide the context for and thus affect decisions and processes at other levels.

Issues Arising out of the Research Proposal

The general purpose of the case study stage of the Staffing and Resources Study was to examine and compare the differing responses that schools in Australia and New Zealand had made in an attempt to provide guidelines to other schools about possible resource allocation policies or policy determination processes, and to provide guidelines to educational systems about the relationship between schools and departments. Implicit in this examination, then, was an attempt to document certain practices that appeared to be 'effective', and which could be utilized in other schools.

More specifically with the development of the study it was understood that the case studies would investigate in more detail those six processes which guided the schools survey component of the Staffing and Resources Study. To recapitulate, those processes were:

- processes of decision making;
- procedures for allocating students to classes;
- procedures for allocating teachers to classes;
- aspects of the school program;
- processes of involving parents, community, ancillary staff and students in the teaching program; and
- aspects of teacher contact time.

The Concept of Effectiveness and Case Study Methodology

In line with the issues arising from research into the school as an organization, the study of effectiveness in this report was viewed as involving two interrelated aspects:

- the different policies used at any one time to allocate resources available; and
- the processes operating within a school designed to review, modify or implement different resource allocation strategies (referred to as policy determination processes).

What is being argued here is that the social organization of the school, its decision-making structures, the relationships between senior and junior staff, the methods of school-based evaluation and of school-based in-service education are equally as important in judging effectiveness of school programs as the actual pattern of resource allocation in schools.

Of importance in the conceptualization of effectiveness is the distinction Barnard (1968) has made between effectiveness and efficiency in relation to personal action and to organizational action:

> When a specific desired end is attained we shall say that the action is 'effective'. When the unsought consequences of the action are more important than the attainment of the desired end and are dissatisfactory, effective action, we shall say, is 'inefficient'. When the unsought consequences are unimportant or trivial, the action is 'efficient'. Moreover, it sometimes happens that the end sought is not attained, but the unsought consequences satisfy desires or motives not the 'cause' of the action. We shall then regard such action as efficient but not effective. In retrospect the action in this case is justified not by the results sought but by those not sought.
>
> Accordingly we shall say that an action is effective if it accomplishes its specific objective aim. We shall say it is efficient if it satisfies the motives of that aim, whether it is effective or not, and the process does not create offsetting dissatisfactions. We shall say that an action is inefficient if the motives are not satisfied, or offsetting dissatisfactions are incurred even if it is effective. (Barnard, 1968:19-20)

Barnard argues that for the continued existence of an organization either effectiveness or efficiency is necessary:

> The vitality of organizations lies in the willingness of individuals to contribute forces to the co-operative system. This willingness requires the belief that the purpose can be carried out, a faith that diminishes to the vanishing point as it appears that it is not in fact in process of being attained. Hence, when effectiveness ceases, willingness to contribute disappears. The continuance of willingness also depends upon the satisfactions that are secured by individual contributors in the process of carrying out the purpose. If the satisfactions do not exceed the sacrifices required, willingness disappears, and the condition is one of organization inefficiency. If the satisfactions exceed the sacrifices, willingness persists, and the condition is one of efficiency of organization. (Barnard, 1968:82)

Barnard sees organizational survival as the maintenance of an equilibrium which is primarily internal, a matter of proportions between the elements but which is ultimately

an equilibrium between the system and the total situation external to it. One of these elements he defines as a willingness of the people to co-operate together but he also notes that a 'willingness to co-operate, except as a vague feeling or desire for association with others, cannot develop without an objective of co-operation' (Barnard, 1968:86). A third element that Barnard describes is that of communication:

> The possibility of accomplishing a common purpose and the existence of persons whose desires might constitute motives for contributing toward such a common purpose are the opposite poles of the system of co-operative effort. The process by which these potentialities become dynamic is that of communication. (Barnard, 1968:89)

Linking Barnard's concepts of efficiency and effectiveness and his discussion of the elements essential to an organization's ability to survive with the dual approach to effectiveness advocated for the case studies, it can be seen that the policy determination processes (Barnard's purposes, co-operation and communication) are essential ingredients for discussion, and also it is likely that the efficiency and effectiveness of resource allocation structures are intrinsically linked to the efficiency of policy determination processes.

The examination of organizational effectiveness and efficiency was to be conducted through the description of 16 specially selected schools, schools which had adopted very different resource allocation patterns and very different policy determination processes. However it could be argued that such judgments are not possible from the study of so few schools, schools with special factors which would have contributed towards the determination of their structures. This argument, taken at its extreme would claim that it is impossible to generalize from case studies and impossible to 'explain' and therefore recommend action from case study research. The issues of explanation and generalization are discussed in detail in Chapter 3. It is argued here that case study work can be used to approach the issue of effectiveness and efficiency and in fact, because of its capacity to study in detail the patterns of relationships of variables, case study methodology is ideally fitted for examining the unanticipated outcomes of action that are so important to the distinction between effectiveness and efficiency.

The use of case studies for the Staffing and Resources Study is best viewed as a form of 'evaluation' research. Scriven (1967) identified two roles of evaluation: a formative and a summative role. The formative role was concerned with gathering data upon which decisions could be made so as to improve programs; and information from such an evaluation would be intended for use by those concerned with program operation. By contrast the summative role referred to evaluation for making judgments about the worth of completed programs. The results of a summative evaluation might guide a decision about introducing a similar program in another context. However, as Ainley has noted:

> While the concepts of formative and summative evaluation have been widely used and discussed, it should not be considered that these two archetypes adequately encompass the whole domain of evaluation. Part of the value of Scriven's (1967) paper was to draw attention to the different roles which evaluation studies could fulfil. Some of the conflict between evaluation strategies arise because the strategies are intended for different roles of evaluation. (Ainley, 1978:48)

Ainley goes on to draw attention to the additional role of evaluation implied by Parlett and Hamilton (1972) in a paper entitled 'Evaluation as Illumination: A New Approach to the Study of Innovatory Programs':

> The aims of illuminative evaluation are to study the innovatory program: how it operates, how it is influenced by the various school situations in which it is applied; what those directly concerned regard as its advantages and disadvantages; and how students' intellectual tasks and academic experiences are most affected. (Parlett and Hamilton, 1972:9)

In brief these authors were arguing that the task of such an evaluation was to provide a comprehensive understanding of the complex reality of the innovation: to illuminate. One essential component of illuminative evaluation is the full description of all aspects of the program under scrutiny and in this way it goes beyond simply passing judgment on the worth of a program. It is argued that research methodology would vary according to the role of the evaluation and, for illuminative evaluation, Parlett and Hamilton (1972) have argued for the use of a range of sources of data in developing a comprehensive description of an innovation.

Stake (1980) has argued with respect to this new form of evaluation:

> Our theory of evaluation emphasizes the distinction between a preordinate approach and a responsive approach. In the recent past the major distinction being made by methodologists is that between what Scriven called formative and summative evaluation (see Scriven, 1967). He gave attention to the difference between developing and already developed programs, and implicitly to evaluation for a local audience of a program in specific setting as contrasted to evaluation for many audiences of a potentially generalizable program. These are important distinctions, but I find it even more important to distinguish between preordinate evaluation studies and responsive evaluation studies. (Stake, 1980:75-76)

Stake argues that the responsive approach sacrifices some precision in measurement hopefully to increase the usefulness of the findings to persons in and around the program. The preordinate studies emphasize statement of goals, objective tests, research-type reports whereas responsive evaluation is less reliant on such formal approaches. An educational evaluation is responsive if it orients more directly to program activities than intents, if it responds to audience requirements for information and if the different value-perspectives of the people at hand are referred to. Stake comments:

> Instead of objectives, or hypotheses as 'advanced organizers' for an evaluation study, I prefer 'issues'. I think the word issues better reflects a sense of complexity, immediacy, and valuing. (Stake, 1980:79)

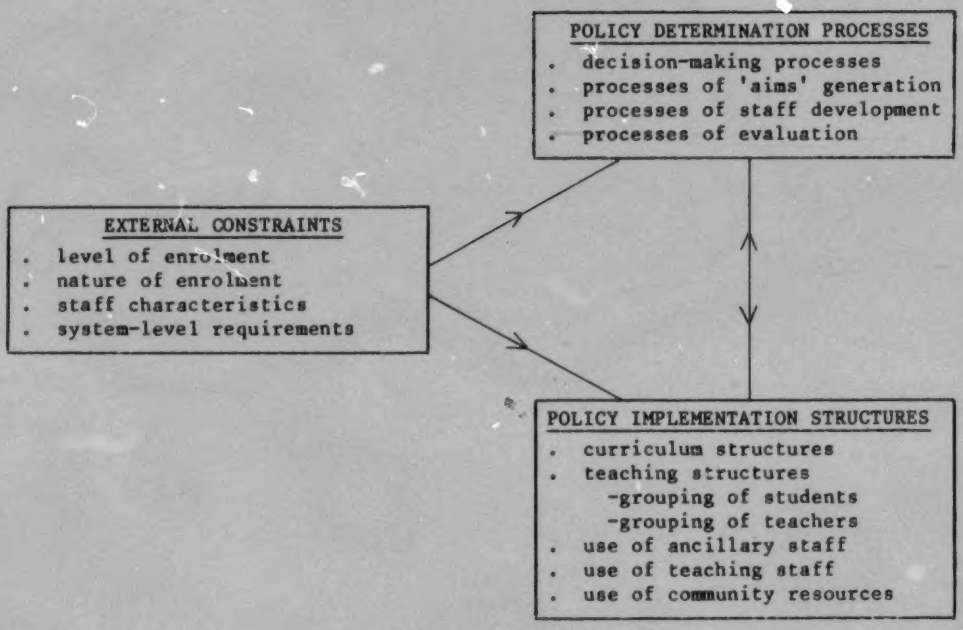

Figure 2.1 Framework for Discussion of School Innovations

It is argued here that the case studies should be seen as a method best suited for illuminative or responsive evaluation. This premise does not detract from the ability of case studies to address issues of effectiveness and efficiency: this is done by a full description of the innovation using multiple methods and achieving various perspectives of efficiency and effectiveness. Such a description necessarily includes the school-based influences and constraints that operate on the innovation and thereby provides the reader, be it another school principal or a departmental representative, with the basis on which to make judgments. Such authority of understanding is achieved by what Weir (1976) has called 'rationality as reasonableness'. Being reasonable requires providing good reasons which vary from situation to situation: in fact such a view denies that universal criteria can be given for the justification of action.

With respect to the case studies the process of illumination, and thereby the judgments of effectiveness and efficiency of school allocation practices and policy determination processes, is achieved through two processes. First, a number of insights into the effects of different actions or structures are documented through interviews with different personnel, through observation and through the administering of two attitude questionnaires to students and teachers respectively. The combination of these perspectives cannot claim to provide a definitive answer to questions about effectiveness or efficiency but can claim to provide a reasonably full description of the perceptions of

effects of action. Second, to enable educational administrators, teachers, principals and so on to estimate the value of school-based action for more general use, the discussion of any school innovation within the six sets of issues listed earlier (be it a policy determination process or resource allocation patterns) is structured around consideration of the constraints and influences operating upon it. This is best seen by consideration of Figure 2.1.

As an example, in the description of the use, say, of composite classes to match carefully the groupings of students of different social, academic and personal characteristics, consideration would be given to the extent to which external constraints operated (Did the enrolment level dictate composite groupings, were the characteristics of the student population such that special provision was necessary?) and the extent to which the policy determination processes operated on the issue (How did the innovation come about, how were staff 'trained' to adapt to the demands created by the innovation and how were the effects of the innovation evaluated?). A similar approach would be adopted if the issue under discussion was a policy determination process itself, for example a system of democratic decision making. The extent to which this structure was affected by external constraints (for example, the need to involve an experienced staff who had not achieved promotional positions) and the extent to which the structure was affected by the objectives of the principal concerning the resource allocation structures already in operation would be examined. In both cases the perceived effects of such structures as illuminated through the case study visits would be described.

Summary

The review of issues arising out of other research, described earlier, referred to the importance of examining the school as an organization as well as examining various methods of deploying the resources available to schools. The premise here is that any attempt to study the effective or the optimum use of resources in different schools should seek to examine effective processes. It seems important that schools should be encouraged to make and be capable of making sound assessments about their own future without having to rely solely on outside evaluation or consultation. In the school case studies, in practice this means the study of those processes by which school educational aims and priorities are formulated, the processes by which these aims are transformed into action, and the processes by which schools evaluate their aims and objectives.

The most important level of aggregation for such a study is considered to be the school itself but the influences of and constraints from the education departments are clearly important. For example at a very simplistic level it is departmental staffing formulae which mainly determine resources available to schools and sometimes the formulae or subsequent guidelines suggest internal school organizations (amount of non-contact time, class sizes, student groupings). Similarly the program content itself

may be guided by systems: this can take the form of a stress on core activities or even the encouragement of schools to become involved in more innovative programs such as transition education or alternative education. Similarly, it is also assumed that the system influences and constraints as well as the school-level policy decisions in turn affect the classroom organization and as a result student attitudes and achievement. Although the case studies did not involve detailed classroom observation, the relationship of these levels of aggregation is considered highly relevant in line with the views expressed by Barr and Dreeben (1977).

The framework proposed for the study and the method of selecting schools enable these issues to be addressed. Descriptions of school policy determination processes are central to the framework as are different policy implementation processes (see Figure 2.1). These policy implementation processes are discussed in line with the six sets of issues listed earlier.

CHAPTER 3

THE METHODOLOGY OF CASE STUDY RESEARCH

This chapter is concerned with reviewing the issues related to case study as a research methodology in social research, compared with other methodologies such as experimental evaluation or survey analysis.

The Case Study in Educational Research

Introduction

Case studies have been described as 'the broadest and simplest methodology used in classroom studies' (Biddle, 1967:328): research workers enter an educational setting armed with notepaper and pens, record a few observations and notes and then write a book! It is probably in part a result of these perceptions that have led to the great criticism that has centred on case studies as a methodology in educational and sociological research.

As early as the 1960s several major methodologists had criticized the use of such procedures (Campbell and Stanley, 1963; Scriven, 1967). Scriven criticized the use of what he refered to as 'process studies' and 'noncomparative evaluation'. Although attitudes within the research community have mellowed over the years, there is still a certain amount of conflict between exponents of case studies and exponents of other research methodologies. It is argued here that this conflict is counter-productive in that it focuses attention on an either/or situation rather than on determining the situations best suited to one methodology or the other, or even to a combination of methodologies. I will return to this point later in this section.

What are Case Studies?

Adelman, Jenkins and Kemmis have noted:

> Case study is an umbrella term for a family of research methods having in common the decision to focus an enquiry around an instance. Not surprisingly the term 'case study' remains a slippery one. (Adelman, Jenkins and Kemmis, 1976:140)

Smith (1978) has commented that researchers have tended to use such varied labels as educational ethnography, participant observation, qualitative observation, case study or field study to mean the same. This adds to the confusion, and as Adelman et al. (1976) have noted case studies should not be equated with observational studies, participant or otherwise, as this would rule out, for example, historical case studies. Observation is a methodology which can be (and usually is) used in case study research but of course it can also be used as a method of collecting data for large-scale research projects not

usually labelled case studies. As an example, researchers have used observation in vandalism studies to supplement unreliable recorded information despite the time consuming nature of such a methodology with large-scale projects (see Wilson, 1979). Adelman et al. (1976:141) note:

> Case study is not the name for a standard methodological package. Research methodology is not defining in case studies but does determine the form of the particular study. In general, the techniques for collecting information for a case study are held in common with a wider tradition of sociological and anthropological fieldwork. Case study methodology is eclectic, although techniques and procedures in common use include observation (participant and non-participant), interview (conducted with varying degrees of structure), audio-visual recording, field note-taking, document collection, and the negotiation of products (e.g. discussing the accuracy of an account with those observed).

Kemmis (1977) has also made the point that case study rarely proceeds by observation in the sense of merely watching: observation also entails such interventions as interviewing, recording, participation and data analysis.

Adelman et al. (1976) have stated that case study research always involves the study of an instance in action and the research is initially set up in one of two ways:

- an issue is given and a case is selected as an instance drawn from a class; or
- a case is given within which issues are indicated, discovered, or studied so that a full understanding of the case is possible.

The authors argue that the first type of study will be predisposed to making generalizations about the class and the second type of study generalizations about the case. The authors accept however that, in the first type of study, the description increasingly emphasizes the uniqueness of the case, whereas in the second the boundaries of the system appear increasingly permeable: questions about the effects of innovation cannot be isolated from the history of the organization, system guidelines, teacher characteristics etc.

In further describing the nature of case studies, Stake (1976) has noted that a case need not be a person or enterprise, it can be any bounded system that is of interest: an institution, a program, a responsibility, a collection or a population. He describes common characteristics of the case study:

> that descriptions are complex, holistic and involving a myriad of not highly isolated variables; that the data are likely to be gathered at least in part by personalistic observation; and that the study is likely to be reported in an informal perhaps narrative style, possibly using verbatim quotation, illustration, and even allusion and metaphor. Comparisons are implicit rather than explicit. Themes and hypotheses may be important, but they remain subordinate to the understanding of the case. (Stake, 1976:8)

In practice it can be argued that the two types of studies referred to by Adelman et al. relate as much to purposes as to distinct approaches. The extent to which the case is then characterized as unique is limited by the purposes of the study.

Purposes of Case Studies

At a general level Straton (1979) has attempted to classify case studies into five broad types:

1 Pedagogical: The aim here is to facilitate understanding and/or knowledge acquisition by a specific group of interested persons. The case is chosen and portrayed so that it provides a clear and easily understood illustration of pre-determined features.

2 Exemplar: This case study is chosen to represent a particular type, to be an example. It may be used pedagogically but may be too unusual, difficult to understand, etc., for that purpose.

3 Therapeutic: This type of case study is undertaken to overcome or cure some debilitating condition, to correct faults, to overcome specific problems.

4 Descriptive: The aim here is to faithfully portray a particular instance which is given.

5 Relational: This case study is done to investigate and explain the interrelationships among the variables within a case. It may involve hypothesis generating, theory confirming, or theory infirming.

Stake argued:

> Although case studies have been used by anthropologists, psychoanalysts, and many others as a method of exploration preliminary to theory development, the characteristics of the method are more suited to expansionist than reductionist pursuits. Theory building is the search for essences, pervasive and determining ingredients, the makings of laws. The case study, however, proliferates rather than narrows. One is left with more to pay attention to rather than less. The case study attends to the idiosyncratic more than to the pervasive. (Stake 1976:8)

Stake (1976) argues that the best use of case studies is to add to existing experience and humanistic understanding. He argues that these characteristics match the readiness that people have for added experience; that experiential data is central to people's understanding which is often a process of imagining oneself in another person's place.

Without denying this perspective there can be no doubt that the case study also has a useful place to play in conjunction with other types of study. It is not unusual for a number of case studies to precede a large scale multivariate analysis in order to assist in defining the relevant issues, the relevant variables, and the appropriate theoretical standpoints. Such studies might also conclude with a number of further case studies aimed perhaps to clarify further the findings of the larger study or to look in detail at certain specific aspects of the study. This was in fact the procedure adopted by the researchers in the Staffing and Resources Study, a procedure, it is argued, that makes good use of both research methodologies. In the case of the preliminary studies, it is likely that the methods employed would be different from the fuller final studies as the initial visits are intended as a fact-finding and ideas-generation mission.

Naturalistic Enquiry

Hamilton has stated:

> My starting point is that, historically, case study research in education has emerged as a counterimage to survey research. Thus, to consider the epistemology of case study research is, by design or default, also to examine the assumptions of survey analysis. To achieve intellectual legitimacy within education, case study research must not merely offer an alternative view of research but build that view upon a critique of existing practices. (Hamilton 1976:1)

The same author noted that this process, although begun, is in its early stages. The desire for credibility within this area of research has led to increasing attention being paid to the 'scientific' elements of case study research. An international conference held in England in 1975 to consider

Methods of Case Study in Educational Research and Evaluation identified two primary tasks in this search for credibility:

- to demystify case study methods by articulating as clearly as possible how the work is planned and carried out; and
- to discuss the need for and, if agreed, to formulate a code of practice for case study workers in education.

Hamilton (1976) has considered the philosophical and historical roots of survey analysis as a means of comparing the basic assumptions and consequences that stem from such analysis with case study analysis. He traces the basis of our present conceptions of survey analysis to John Stuart Mill's A System of Logic published first in 1843. Hamilton lists seven major assumptions of survey analysis following from Mill:

- The social and natural sciences have identical aims viz. the discovery of general laws which serve for explanation and prediction;
- The social and natural sciences are methodologically identical;
- The social sciences are merely more complex than the natural sciences;
- Concepts can be defined by direct reference to empirical categories, 'objects in the concrete';
- There is a uniformity of nature in time and space, the 'ultimate major premise';
- Laws of nature can be logically derived from data; and
- Large samples suppress idiosyncrasies and reveal general causes.

The methodological consequences of these assumptions, according to Hamilton, included an erroneous deduction that the social and natural sciences should use the same procedures; types of methodological reductionism (such as 'treat social facts as things'); an obsession with multivariate analysis; an advocacy of performance rather than competency (the use of tests as measures, etc.); the use of ahistorical and ethnocentric ideas in the social sciences; a confounding of discoveries with 'theory'; and the use of large samples. Hamilton then listed a set of contrary assumptions emergent within case study research. Included amongst these were that procedures in any science should

relate to the phenomena being studied; that 'things' should be treated as 'social facts'; that complexity relates to interpretation, not description; that concepts are inventions, not discoveries (they refer to non-observable phenomena); that a theory which incorporates the uniformity of nature cannot accommodate social change; that theories, like concepts, are abstractions and therefore the relationship between theory and data is not reflected in the structure of formal logic; and that the distinction between idiosyncrasies and regularities is a theoretical judgment.

As a result of these distinctions Hamilton argues that survey analysis is necessarily designated as falling within the 'eklarung' paradigm of social research whereas case studies do not necessarily fall within the 'verstehen' paradigm: they can comprehend both types of inquiry:

> Crudely, it is possible to build a census around a series of case studies and conduct a census within a case study. The converse, however, does not apply. (Hamilton, 1976:6)

The conclusion that Hamilton draws from his paper is that 'naturalistic investigation of educational practice uses a procedural logic which owes little to John Stuart Mill and his descendants' (Hamilton 1976:7). This is an important point because a lot of the criticism of the technique is centred on some of the unchallenged assumptions of survey analysis as they apply to all research and it is essential to lay open these assumptions.

The paper by Hamilton raises several major issues in research methodology. To what extent is case study research inherently contrary to survey research, that is, should the methodologies be seen as complementary or contradictory? To what extent can survey research address key sociological or educational issues? To what extent can case study research or any social research be viewed as 'scientific'? It is the answer to the first question that really provides the key to the subsequent questions.

Case Study v. Survey Research: The False Debate?

To view survey research according to the strict assumptions laid down by John Stuart Mill would produce a dichotomy between the stances of survey and case study methodologists. The debate would probably have to be an either/or conflict. But does all survey research adhere to these assumptions, and is it true, in any one case, that there are aspects inherent to case study methodology that are philosophically contradictory to survey methodology or aspects to survey methodology contradictory to case study methodology? At a very simple level it is easy to answer this question. Both methodologies are aimed at increasing our understanding of human nature or social organizations, it is only the method that differs. Therefore there really are no inherent contradictions. Of course this interpretation merely begs the question.

Wilson (1977) argues that the rationale underlying case study research is based on

two sets of hypotheses about human behaviour: the naturalistic-ecological hypothesis and the qualitative-phenomenological hypothesis. On the first hypothesis ecological psychologists claim that:

> if one hopes to generalize research findings to the everday world where most human events occur, then the research must be conducted in settings similar to those that the researchers hope to generalize about. (Wilson, 1977:247)

Settings, it is argued, influence people as a result of the physical arrangements and the internalized notions in people's minds about what is expected and allowed (traditions, roles, values, norms etc.). The only demand that the ecological hypothesis makes is that behaviour be studied in the field.

The second hypothesis, phenomenology, offers an alternative view of objectivity and methods appropriate for studying human behaviour to that of the natural science model:

> the social scientist cannot understand human behaviour without understanding the framework within which the subjects interpret their thoughts, feelings and actions ... The natural science approach to objectivity requires the researcher to impose a priori limitations on the data, an act which makes it difficult to discover the perspectives of the subjects. (Wilson, 1977:249)

Usual research procedures are deemed inadequate for gathering information that takes these participants' perspectives into account, as are customary deductive activities. Although the phenomenological researchers would study prior research and theory as much as the traditional researcher, they purposely suspend this knowledge until their experience with the research setting suggests its relevance.

Combining together these two hypotheses provides a rationale, it is argued, for case study research, in particular participant observation research or, in the terms of evaluation methodology, for illuminative evaluation.

Looking at the debate from the opposite side, traditional researchers would argue that the type of knowledge achieved through survey research is the same as that achieved through case study research, that is a 'common sense knowing':

> If we achieve a meaningful quantitative 100-nation correlation, it is by dependence on this kind of knowing at every point, not by replacing it with a 'scientific' quantitative methodology which substitutes for such knowing. The quantitative multination generalization will contradict such anecdotal, single-case, naturalistic observation at some points, but it will do so only by trusting a much larger body of such anecdotal, single-case, naturalistic observations. (Campbell, 1975:178)

The argument here is that there is nothing inherently different about the data, only the degrees of freedom or in other terms the sample size.

To summarize both arguments, it is the extent to which one can or cannot generalize from case studies which provides the major argument against their use according to traditional researchers, and it is the extent to which the data capture or do not capture real processes that encapsulates the main argument against survey analysis.

Hamilton's (1976) paper implied that the assumptions laid down by Mill have led to methodological consequences emphasizing a certain approach with survey research. This is closely related to the general premise above that it is the quality of data being questioned by ethnographers: many of the methodological consequences outlined by Hamilton can, and are, avoided by survey analysts (for example the definition of concepts by direct reference to empirical categories, and the place of theory in research) but it is still argued that, because survey analysts need to 'treat social facts as things', this leads to a restrictive quality of the data collected and a restrictive view of the processes involved in social situations.

If the quality of the data that can be collected by the different research strategies is necessarily different, it follows that the purposes for which these strategies would be used would also be different. It would also argue for blending of different methods of investigation in order to tackle fully educational questions. Ainley has argued:

> Specific ways of blending these approaches to the study of educational questions will depend on the study undertaken. By way of illustration, one possibility would be to use survey methods, case study research, and quasi-experimental correlational methods. The survey would provide a generalized description of the population being considered and be used to select appropriate case studies. Exploratory case studies would provide a full description of the problem in a few settings. From the case studies the essential elements of the problem, and hypotheses, could be formulated. A quasi-experimental correlational study could then be used to test the generality of the hypotheses. Further case studies would then follow to elaborate the generalizations which resulted. From these the process could be continued in an interactive fashion, so that the perspectives from both the case studies and the correlational research could complement each other. (Ainley, 1978:55)

The important point was that each method could be strengthened by appealing to the unique qualities of the other. The position taken by Ainley would suggest that the different research strategies can all be used to tackle the same initial questions but only with considerable interaction between different methodologies. In his example, it would have been possible for a second survey analysis to have been used instead of the quasi-experimental design. Of course, many researchers are not in a position to be able to implement this interactive model of research through insufficient time or money. In these situations research workers still have to decide in favour of one methodology and they then have to decide whether survey analysis can address the same issues without the complementary assistance of other strategies. In essence there is no easy answer to this question. Modern survey analysis has developed in a vast number of areas: new statistical techniques have enabled a more sophisticated testing of theoretical models; much work of a methodological nature has been done to increase the reliability of items used; a general increase in knowledge about the processes involved in educational issues has enabled a refinement of the sorts of survey analyses performed. Together these factors have increased the usefulness of survey methodology. However, when a research

worker has to make a choice between methodologies as opposed to the interactive model described, he will be weighing up the relevant advantages and disadvantages of approaches as they relate to the specific issues he wishes to address and as they relate to the specific resources he has at his disposal.

The main argument against case study methodology has centred on the issue of generalization. It is sometimes said that despite a richness of data from case studies their unique qualities deny generalization and their usefulness for policy is consequently limited. To some extent with respect to schools, no matter what idiosyncracies each school may have they do have one major aspect in common, namely that learning involves interactions between teachers and students. Accepting this universality does increase the chances for generalization from particular experiences. However those advocating that it is impossible to generalize from case studies see their value only in the interactive model of research described above. Some case study research has involved the study of several cases chosen to typify several populations and it follows that the scope for generalization increases with this approach. It does not deny the basic premise of generalization from unique situations. Involved in this argument are two issues: the extent to which generalization is possible, and the extent to which case study research can therefore assist policy makers.

Stake has claimed that:

> case studies will often be the preferred method of research because they may be epistemologically in harmony with the reader's experience and thus to that person a natural basis for generalization. (Stake, 1976:1)

Stake's argument is that if we are to help policy makers understand social problems and social programs, 'we must perceive and communicate in a way that accommodates to their present understandings' (Stake, 1976:1). He argues that policy makers, however specialized their area may be, attain and amend their understandings for the most part through personal experience and therefore research should approximate to these natural experiences. Quoting from the philosopher Dithey, Stake argued that the more objective and scientific studies did not do the best job of acquainting man with himself:

> We understand ourselves and others only when we transfer our own lived experience into every kind of expression of our own and other people's lives. (Stake, 1976:2)

Dithey was arguing against the positivist position for a more empathetic type of understanding. Kemmis has also argued:

> For the reader of a case study report, the objectified case will only be comprehensible to the extent that it can be re-created in terms of his own language and forms of life. To be understood, the case must be authentic (grounded in the circumstances of our lives, validated by experience). (Kemmis, 1977:20)

Following this argument into the concept of generalization, Stake (1976) has argued for naturalistic generalization, which is arrived at 'by recognizing the similarities of the objects and issues in and out of context and by sensing the natural covariations of happenings' (Stake, 1976:5). He argues that this type of generalization is both intuitive and empirical. Naturalistic generalizations 'form from the tacit knowledge of how things are, why they are, how people feel about them, and how these things are likely to be, later or in other places with which this person is familiar' (Stake, 1976:6). The distinction which Stake is making here is that which Polyani (1958) has made between propositional and tacit knowledge:

> Propositional knowledge - the knowledge of both reason and gossip - was seen to be composed of all interpersonally sharable statements, most of which for most people are observations of objects and events. Tacit knowledge may also dwell on objects and events, but it is knowledge gained from experience with them, experience with propositions about them, and rumination. (Stake, 1976:3)

The distinction is also one of understanding and explanation. Stake argues that explanation is a type of understanding but understanding offers something extra: a psychological feature or a type of empathy. He argues that explanation belongs to propositional knowledge and understanding to tacit knowledge and that case study methodology is best suited to understanding, not to explanation. Although naturalistic generalizations might become verbalized and pass from tacit to propositional knowledge, they do not meet empirical and logical tests that characterize formal (scientific) generalizations.

Diesing (1972), however, would not have accepted this view. Case study methodology, he would argue, serves both to describe and explain. It is the type of explanation that differs in different research methods. Diesing distinguishes the deductive model which emphasizes laws and the pattern model of explanation (after Kaplan, 1964) which emphasizes facts. In the pattern model a theme, and also a relation, is explained by specifying its place in the pattern. Diesing argues:

> The pattern model seems appropriate when an explanation involves many diverse facts or factors of approximately equal importance, when the pattern of relations between these facts or factors is important, and when the relations can be rather directly observed in the particular case. The deductive model seems more appropriate when one or two basic factors or laws determine what is to be explained, and when these laws are better known than the individual instance. In the latter case it is the laws rather than direct observation that guarantee the connections or correlations explaining the situation. (Diesing, 1972:163)

In case study research then, the pattern model of explanation would be the type employed. With respect to generalization the view adopted by Stake concerning naturalistic generalization would not be denied. The main argument of the positivist school is that single members poorly represent whole populations: naturalistic generalizations imply a more limited generalization:

> Often the situation, however, is one in which there is need for generalization about that particular case or generalization to a similar case rather than generalization to a population of cases. Then the demands for typicality and representativeness yield to needs for assurance that the target case is properly described. As readers recognise essential similarities to cases of interest to them, they establish the basis for naturalistic generalization. (Stake, 1976:7)

Adelman et al. (1976) share this viewpoint and refer to three different kinds of generalization as related to case study methodology: the first is from the instance studied to the class it purports to represent, the second is from case-bound features of the instance to a multiplicity of classes, and the third is about the case itself.

Diesing, in fact, adopted a very positive stance towards the issue of generalization and the case study:

> If I were to work out this problem in detail to determine how adequately various methods deal with it, case study methods would come out on top. They include both the particular and the universal within science instead of consigning the particular to intuition, practical application, or history; they exhibit the universal within the particular instead of segregating the two in one way or another, and they move from particular to universal and back by gradual steps rather than in one grand jump. (Diesing, 1972:296)

This rather lengthy section has centred on the debate between the positivist school as expressed mainly in survey analysis and the antipositivist school. The purpose of the seetion has not been to argue the value of one methodology over and above another but rather to question the more simplistic attacks that have been made on both methodologies. It is the view of this author that there is a role for all types of research methodology in the pursuit of greater understanding of human and social behaviour. In fact the interactive research model as presented by Ainley (1978) would appear to have much to offer when this strategy is practicable. When it is not, the choice of the strategy would depend on the purposes of the study as well as the constraints on the researcher. In connection with the present report, it is argued that case studies can be used for a limited form of generalization and that they can form the basis for explanation as well as understanding in a more general sense.

Research Strategies: Towards a Science

The preceding sections have described and argued in a general way for the usefulness of case study research. This section looks in detail at the strategies involved in such research and the methods used to make the approach more acceptable to critics. The argument underlying this discussion is that 'if case study is to be justified it must make its process accessible to the reader: so that it is possible to evaluate the reasonableness of the construction of the case' (Kemmis, 1977:21).

To justify his proposition that 'case study work is science' Kemmis (1977) notes that case study, like all science, is a process of truth seeking; that case study, like all

science, is a social and cultural process; and that at the root of case study research, as in all science, lies the problem of 'justified true belief', that is, how to justify the claims of truth being made. It is sometimes argued, though, that because case study work is naturalistic the methods employed are more subjective and less able to be formalized into a set of acceptable practices. The discussion that follows focuses on these issues.

The subjectivity/objectivity debate is a key issue in the discussion of different research strategies:

> Because case studies speak about a world we know at a commonsense level, they often leave readers in doubt about how much the truths they tell are commonsense and how much scientific. Because case studies are usually the product of an intense involvement by one or a few individuals with their subject matter, they are sometimes dismissed as purely 'subjective' and are regarded with suspicion, even hostility, by some social scientists. (Kemmis, 1977:3)

Methodologists have suggested a number of strategies to counteract the dangers of perceived subjectivity. Wilson (1977) has argued that, in addition to understanding how all those who are involved interpret behaviour, the researcher must understand the way he or she interprets it from his outside perspective. The researcher has to develop 'a dynamic tension between the subjective role of participant and the role of observer so that he is neither one entirely' (Wilson, 1977:250). This concept is similar to the view of Kemmis (1977) who argues that researchers have to be as much students of their own reactions to their 'objects' as students of the culture. Their reactions will then help to flush into the open their assumptions and preconceptions.

The issue of objectivity in research is not simply an issue facing case study research. Wilson (1977) argued that, because quantitative researchers were restricted within their own perspectives, they also risked being concerned with irrelevant variables or theories. Glaser and Strauss have described the advantage of a more open approach over a pre-structured study:

> The consequence (of the traditional approach) is often a forcing of data as well as a neglect of relevant concepts and hypotheses that may emerge ... Our approach, allowing substantive concepts and hypotheses to emerge first, on their own, enables the analyst to ascertain which, if any, existing formal theory may help him generate his substantive theories. He can then be more objective and less theoretically biased. (Glaser and Strauss, 1967:34)

It is obviously accepted that no researcher can enter a situation completely free of preconceptions but the view taken by Glaser and Strauss could be questioned. Although the 'traditional' research referred to could well involve biases, these are open to question by other researchers as the underlying hypotheses and variables selected are listed and can be challenged. The open approach less easily allows for this. Although an advantage of case study is its iterative nature of operation, this process is still possible if a theoretical stance is initially taken and this is then modified or not as evidence is brought to bear. This strategy better lays bare the initial preconceptions of researchers

rather than that of 'bracketing' or suspending preconceptions. As Malinowski has commented:

> Preconceived ideas are pernicious in any scientific work, but foreshadowed problems are the main endowment of a scientific thinker, and these problems are first revealed to the observer by his theoretical studies. (Malinowski, 1922:8-9)

The conception of foreshadowed problems does not deny theoretical biases and this is why it is important to describe the tenor of the theoretical concerns that the researcher goes in with.

It is sometimes argued that, because of the interactive approach of case study research, the reliability of evidence gathered is questionable. Adelman et al. make the point:

> The kind of in-depth portrayal produced by the case study aspires to credulity of account, but the reader should be allowed to reconsider for himself the relationship between assertion and evidence. The overheard should be distinguished from hearsay, primary evidence from secondary, description from interpretation, verbatim accounts from summaries. The principle can be extended: the 'raw' data needs to be accessible, as well as the 'cooked' account; the accuracy of transcripts should be open to independent check; and the reactivity of the researchers should be assessed or at least assessable in principle. (Adelman et al., 1976:145)

Research workers need to be aware of several possible sources of error in the interpretation of data: the reactive effect of the observer's presence on the phenomena being studied, the distorting effects of selective perception and interpretation, and the limitations on the observers' ability to witness all relevant aspects of the phenomena (the sampling problem at the data level). At a simple level people may lie to hide organizational realities to outsiders, or observers may be steered towards particular teachers or classes.

Strategies can and have been devised to counteract these problems. The concept of 'triangulation' in case study research (Tawney, 1975), which can be described as a process in which a variety of methods are brought to bear on the same point, is at the heart of the intention of the case study worker to respond to the multiplicity of perspectives present. Diesing (1972) argues that this process is the holist's response to the issues of validity and reliability in survey research. The holist, he argues, is not concerned with reliability because his method is not impersonal but he must be concerned with something analogous to validity. Diesing refers to this type of validity as contextual validity which he says can take two forms:

- the validity of a piece of evidence which can be assessed by comparing it with other kinds of evidence on the same point; and
- the validity of the source of evidence which can be evaluated by collecting other kinds of evidence about that source.

To distinguish contextual validity from that validity important to the survey researcher, Diesing refers to the dependability of a source of evidence:

> The dependability of a source of evidence is the extent to which its output can be taken at face value relative to other sources of evidence, in the process of interpreting manifold evidence. None of the evidence used by clinicians and participant observers is absolutely dependable: none is ever completely free of the need for cross-checking and reinterpretation. The techniques of contextual validation must be used more or less continuously on nearly all the evidence gathered. (Diesing, 1972:149)

The processes of disconfirmation and triangulation in case study research parallel the use of hypothesis-testing and replication with variation in experimental research designs. Control or 'holds' on phenomena are achieved through the processes of observation and interpretation (Kemmis, 1977). Although control is not exercised over the context of production of the phenomena, the context of occurrence is treated as problematic because it appears to produce the phenomena.

Summarizing the objectivity/subjectivity debate in case study research Wilson contends that:

> well-executed ethnographic research uses a technique of disciplined subjectivity that is as thorough and intrinsically objective as are other kinds of research. (Wilson, 1977:258)

A related issue to the subjectivity debate concerns the responsibilities and obligations that researchers have to the researched. This is really an issue of the morality of the intrusion.

Walker (1980) has argued that, although in the past case study research has taken an autocratic mode, the democratic mode of evaluation is particularly appropriate in case study research or in evaluation activities using case study techniques:

> This places the case study worker in the position of having to negotiate his interpretations with those involved in the study rather than being free to impose them on the data. The shift involved is a shift in power, a move away from researchers' concern, descriptions and problems
> towards practitioners' concerns, descriptions and problems. (Walker, 1980:37)

Kemmis makes the point that, in social science, observation is only rarely unobtrusive with respect to the observed:

> The observation process unavoidably calls into play the frameworks of the observer just as the process of communication unavoidably calls into play the frameworks of the hearer. (Kemmis, 1977:10)

Case studies are carried out in 'real' situations in which the people studied have responsibilities and obligations with which the study could interfere. The research worker may also accept obligations and create expectations to be honoured:

> Because case studies are often 'close-up' accounts, it may be necessary to readjust the balance of power between the research community and those studied. (Adelman et al., 1976:144)

Adelman et al. (1976) comment that one way of making salient the rights of those studied could be through a more explicit research contract which might involve details of the credentials of the research team, the formal proposal, the extent of likely involvement, the possibility of disruption, the conventions or principles governing access to and use of information and the status of alternative viewpoints (that is how disagreements are handled over interpretation). Kapferer warns that without careful planning in early stages problems can exist:

> Early misunderstandings as to the nature, extent and purpose of the research can prepare the ground for exactly that reciprocity of bias which leads to strained relations and possible eventual disaster for the research. (Kapferer, 1980:271)

It is the researcher's task to ensure early contacts are maintained so as to ensure the smooth operation of interpersonal relations upon which the process of fieldwork is based.

The issue of the morality of the intrusion, then, spreads to the morality of the report. The researcher wishes to justify his own work and this implies that he should give an account of the processes of the study. But this can only be done to the extent that openness does not jeopardize participant informers. One conventional device for handling these problems is to make reports anonymous. However if this is taken to the extreme, such that the identification of incidents or participants is unlikely even by those close to the situation, then it is doubtful whether studies can feed reflection or action. If the anonymity works only for the outside it can still limit the value of the work for those with most to gain and in some situations it could limit the extent to which naturalistic generalizations are possible. Nevertheless there are occasions when this procedure is the only possible one. As part of the research contract, informants may also be given the right to 'edit' researchers' accounts so as to share in the 'protection' process.

Diesing (1972) has noted that the problem could take the opposite form in that researchers feel indebted to their subjects and might wish to write some glowing reports on them. In theory this problem could apply to survey researchers indebted to those completing questionnaires but the issue appears more marked with field work. Many strategies can be employed to cope with this and at a simple level the preparation of a report for the organization studied may be sufficient to repay indebtedness. However, no matter what the form of repayment there is always a residual indebtedness, and this potential for bias requires careful watching.

Summary

Smith (1978) has written of the evolving logic of case study research and this is how it should be seen: the process is a continuing one. The debate about case study research, as about other types of research, should not centre on denials of the worth of one

methodology in order to justify another but should focus on the improvement of the methods involved in all types of research and on the choice of the most appropriate methodology for the task at hand. Case study research has an intrinsic worth; what Diesing (1972) calls an 'implicit ontology' in its focus on what is real. This does not detract from other methods nor does it deny the need to review constantly the methods used in case study research. The preceding sections have been devised in order to do this.

The following chapter describes the methodology employed in the present study. Although the previous, more general discussion did not argue for one specific methodology (the methodology being dependent on the issues to be tackled and the resources available) it did highlight potential problems in case study research. The following descriptions will show how the methodology devised dealt (or failed to deal) with these varying issues.

CHAPTER 4

THE CASE STUDIES IN THE STAFFING AND RESOURCES STUDY

This chapter describes how the case study stage of the Staffing and Resources Study was organized, that is what purposes were specified for the studies, which issues were to be addressed by the case studies, what methods were used to select schools, how many schools were to be selected, the selection of fieldworkers to be involved, the research methodologies to be employed in the schools, the instruments used, the timing of the case studies, the initial approach to the schools, the procedure for writing the reports and the feedback to schools.

Research projects often undergo various changes during their course. Although the original proposal may vary in its precision from one study to another, as the research proceeds new ideas are often forthcoming and new approaches may develop. Within case study work this is generally accepted as valuable. The Staffing and Resources Study had the benefit of formal advisory committees as well as access to many sources of informal advice. It was, like all research projects, subject to resource constraints. The combination of these aspects resulted in the evolution of research strategies in the case studies rather than one strategy originally conceived and adhered to. This process is an important one as it helps to explain the developing emphases, even the initial preconceptions, that researchers have. In line with the belief that case study workers should be aware of these aspects as much as the study of their subjects, consideration is given to the developmental process in the following sections.

Purposes of Case Studies

In early discussions about the scope of the Staffing and Resources Study it was suggested that the Study might involve a quantitative evaluation of the effects that policies of allocating staff and resources have on schools, on the teaching-learning environment, and on teachers and students. In line with this, the original proposal saw the case study stage as providing additional material on the relationship between resource deployment and some outcome measures. In the terminology used by Straton (1979) such case studies would have been 'relational', that is devised to investigate and explain the inter-relationships among the variables within a case.

However, the emphasis of the school survey changed from this quantitative dimension to a more descriptive nature. Although implicit in the proposal for the Study was the desire to seek more effective means of organizing schools' resources, it was accepted that the survey would not address this through reference to specified outcome measures. The result of this was a change of emphasis with respect to the purposes of the case studies, with perhaps a widening of their perceived role. The case studies were seen as forming the exploratory phase of the Study as a whole (there was also a

descriptive and analytic phase). The exploratory phase was conceived to elaborate the ways in which resource standards in schools affect what actually happens: to describe in detail ways in which schools of different types make use of the resources available. In line with this changing emphasis it was thought that case studies, in Straton's (1979) terminology, would be either 'exemplar', that is chosen to represent a particular type of school, or 'descriptive', that is selected to portray faithfully a particular instance such as a particular innovation that a school had introduced. In the latter case it was felt that the provision of a rich source of material on the reasons for and effects of the use of such innovations could be of immense value to school staff who see situations in their schools as being similar to that of the case study schools, and who have to make decisions about how to cope with similar problems or needs. As a result it was felt that such an approach could, in Straton's terminology, also be viewed as 'pedagogical', that is case studies designed to facilitate understanding and/or knowledge acquisition. At the beginning of 1980, then, twin purposes were seen for the studies:

- to document more accurately some practices in exemplary or innovatory schools; and
- to provide guidelines for other schools on which to base decisions.

In essence these were accepted as satisfactory criteria for the case study phase. Implicit in these two specific purposes were two more general purposes, that the case studies should be relevant to the terms of reference of the Study and relevant to the schools participating in the Study (and hopefully to other schools throughout Australia and New Zealand). To satisfy these general purposes it was advocated that the case studies should address, in particular, items 2 to 5 of the terms of reference:

- to inquire into difficulties faced by school systems and schools in allocating staff and resources to and within schools;
- to examine measures that are being taken at the present time to overcome these difficulties;
- to review new developments and alternative arrangements in staffing schools; and
- to recommend action which can be taken by schools and school systems to improve existing arrangements or overcome problems experienced in staffing schools.

It was also considered that the case studies should concentrate on alternative methods of using staff, given present economic contraints. It was intended that the case studies would examine both the policies that schools had adopted or been obliged to adopt to meet the needs of their school community, and the effects of these policies upon the students and teachers in the school. As a result a greater focus was placed on the examination of innovatory schools rather than of exemplary schools and in Straton's terminology the real focus was a 'pedagogical' one. Implicit also at the discussions at this

time was the desire to assess school effectiveness and to examine the effects of constraints on school. In a sense, if case studies were to be used as guidance for other schools or school systems they had to address the question of effectiveness of strategies: only through such an assessment could other schools make informed judgments about implementation.

One final thread emerged during this stage of the project. It was accepted that, although the main emphasis of the studies was to be the innovatory nature of the schools selected, the cases should also supplement the material supplied by the survey. The desire here was twofold: case studies could be used to test some of the indications arising from the survey and also the studies should not focus so much on innovation that the problems and practices of a 'normal' school were lost sight of.

In a way, then, both a pedagogical and descriptive role had entered the case studies in the final reckoning. The way these two aspects were to be drawn together relates to the question of the specific issues to be tackled in the different studies.

Issues Addressed by Case Studies

In a similar way to the development of views about the purposes of case studies so there was a gradual focusing of views about the specific issues which should be addressed. When the possibility of relational studies was present this was not problematic: the survey would have indicated certain relationships between resource deployment and outcomes and a number of these relationships would have been selected. With the initial change of focus towards pedagogical and exemplary studies and the later emphasis towards pedagogical and descriptive studies, however, the question of issues was problematic. What innovations should be analysed? What issues should be described?

In line with the general direction of the Study it was argued that focus should be placed on issues of staffing as opposed to non-personnel resources. In earlier discussions it was felt that identified 'major' issues should be addressed by the case studies. These were to be identified through analysis of the schools survey, as well as making use of material already supplied by the different education departments and the teachers associations. At this stage it was argued that exemplar studies would need to investigate issues that have been addressed by the survey but pedagogical case studies could relate to issues of importance identified outside of the survey. At an early stage a list of possible major issues was made:

- methods used by schools to enable teachers to have additional non-contact time;
- methods used by schools to enable co-ordination of the teaching program from one year to the next and from one subject area to the next;
- methods used by schools to group students;
- methods used by schools to involve parents, community or other people in the operation of the school;

- methods used by schools to involve staff in the decision-making processes of the school;
- methods used by schools to involve ancillary staff in the school program;
- methods used by schools to adapt to demands made by teacher absences;
- methods used by schools to allocate teachers to classes; and
- methods used by schools to develop and put into practice educational aims and goals.

The focus of these issues was on issues of resource deployment but one or two of the issues also looked at the school organizational processes that led to the resource deployment strategies (decision making, aims and goals generation).

In later discussions where it was argued that a descriptive element of case studies was necessary to link this stage with the original schools survey as well as a pedagogical element aimed at providing information on some innovative elements of schools a twofold research strategy was planned. First, in each school visited the case study would address in more detail the full range of processes that were originally addressed in the schools survey. These were summarized as:

- processes of decision making;
- processes of allocating students to classes;
- procedures for allocating teachers to classes;
- aspects of the school program (for example the range of subjects offered);
- aspects of the involvement of parents, community, ancillary staff and students in the teaching program; and
- aspects of teacher contact time.

Second, any one school would be selected because it offered an 'innovative' or 'interesting' (defined for these purposes as differing from the norm with respect to survey response) practice in at least one of the areas above and this particular issue or issues would be studied in greater detail in these schools. Examination of questionnaires at this stage of the development of the study indicated a number of specific issues which appeared suitable. These included the organization of schools into sub-schools, the organization of school decision making, the use of team-teaching techniques, the use of composite classes for educational purposes, the use of students as peer-group or cross-age tutors, the use of parents or community personnel in the classroom, the use made of ancillary staff, the use made of specialist teachers in primary schools, the methods used to provide non-contact time, the effects of the use of permanent or temporary part-time teachers in schools, the effects on the school of innovative curricular developments such as multicultural programs and transitional education programs, and the organization of pre-school enrolments.

It was argued that this twofold strategy provided an opportunity to study in some detail both the innovative practices that schools adopt, as well as the more common

Table 4.1 Schools Selected according to Issues

Issues	Number of different types of school addressing sets of issues[a]				
	Primary (n = 8)	Secondary High (n = 5)	Secondary Technical (n = 1)	College (n = 1)	District High (n = 1)
Decision-making	2	3	1	1	
Allocation of students	5	3			
Allocation of teachers	6	1		1	1
School program	4	5	1	1	1
Involvement of community etc.	4	2		1	1
Teacher contact time	3	1	1		1

[a] As noted any one school might have been selected primarily to address one or more of these issues. The total number of schools selected was sixteen.

practices in other areas. The strategy enabled both a certain amount of validation of the survey data, as well as an opportunity for further hypotheses generation. The development of the specific issues took account of issues raised by informed people, analysis of questionnaires, and the initial proposal (the terms of reference and contemporary issues).

Table 4.1 summarizes the selection of schools according to the six general processes listed. The following section explains how schools were selected to address these different sets of issues.

Methods Used to Select Schools

The methods used to select schools were necessarily linked to the purposes for which the studies were intended and the issues to be addressed. As a result various possibilities had been formulated to meet the different strategies that had been suggested at different times.

Early in the study when it was considered that case studies might tackle relational issues following multivariate survey analysis, one suggestion was that schools might be identified as performing above and below expectation (with respect to the home backgrounds of their students) in areas related to the basic skills in literacy and numeracy. As the ideas developed concerning the studies and the various possible purposes were identified a number of different selection methods were put forward for consideration including:

- selecting 'typical' schools from a number of clusters identified in a cluster analysis of schools using key pre-defined characteristics;

- selecting extreme cases on one or more dimensions deemed to be important indicators of innovative resource usage;
- selecting schools on the a priori judgment of those with local knowledge as being 'innovative and effective'; and
- selecting schools on the basis of cognitive achievement as performing above or below expectation.

It was accepted above that selection of schools did not necessarily have to follow from survey analysis and it was further argued that a combination of survey analysis and a priori judgment of those with local knowledge was the most suitable for selecting innovative and interesting schools. At this stage these 'outsiders' were not specified but it was considered both departmental personnel and teacher associations could be approached.

By mid-1980 there had developed a sharper focus on purposes and issues. It had been argued that in order to ensure the usefulness of the case studies to the full range of schools participating in the Study it was necessary to select schools to embrace this range (primary, secondary, technical, district high schools, secondary colleges) as well as to select schools that embraced a fairly wide range of interesting issues. Similarly, as the Study involved every Australian State, the Australian Capital Territory and New Zealand there was discussion as to whether the case studies should involve schools from all States. With respect to selecting innovative schools it had been noted that certain systems would be likely to yield greater numbers of such schools and as a result there were some grounds for suggesting schools should be selected from a limited number of systems. Opposed to this was the argument that any one Australian system might benefit most from detailed analysis of innovations in other systems (innovations they are less likely to be aware of), and perhaps Australia generally would benefit mostly from closer scrutiny of the very different New Zealand system. At an advisory committee meeting in early 1980, the system representatives took the view that the selection of schools should be primarily related to the issues but that if only a small number of case studies were to be conducted it would be desirable but not essential that at least one school be selected from each system. The final selection of schools was in fact geared to include a school from each system.

Obviously the final selection of schools had to be based on constraints that determined the number of schools that could be visited. In the final analysis 16 schools were chosen for the case studies as a compromise between constraints and meeting the needs of the Study: it was not considered possible to study more than 16 schools using only staff from the Australian Council for Educational Research. A further discussion of these constraints follows this section.

To ensure that the case studies were relevant to all participating schools it was felt that one factor in selection should be school size as it was argued that issues considered important, and innovative options available, would vary with school size.

Table 4.2 Australian Schools and Colleges: Case Study Selections

	Small schools[a]		Medium schools[b]		Large schools[c]		Total	
	Number in survey	Number of case studies	Number in survey	Number of case studies	Number in survey	Number of case studies	Number in survey	Number of case studies
Primary sector	37	1	219	3	47	1	303	5
Secondary high	29	1	190	3	40	1	259	5
Secondary technical							14	1
Primary-secondary Sector							36	1
College sector							14	1

a For primary schools 7 or less teachers; for secondary schools 30 or less teachers.

b For primary schools between 8 and 30 teachers; for secondary schools between 30 and 80 teachers.

c For primary schools more than 30 teachers; for secondary schools more than 80 teachers.

Although no sophisticated procedure was adopted to select case study schools in proportion to the number of schools of similar type included in the survey, it did seem appropriate that there was reasonable relationship between the two. Table 4.2 showed the proposed selection of Australian schools from different sectors and of different sizes.

Table 4.2 refers to Australian schools only: a different strategy was employed for New Zealand schools. The Post-primary Teachers Association in New Zealand had declined to participate in either aspect of the Study (survey or case studies) which left only the primary schools: 80 primary schools had been surveyed. The New Zealand primary system comprised three types of school, namely, contributing, intermediate, and full primary. Full primary schools take new entrants through to Form 2 (which is roughly equivalent to Year 7 in Australia), intermediate schools take only Form 1 and Form 2 students (roughly equivalent to Year 6 and Year 7 in Australia) and contributing schools take new entrants up to but not including Form 1 students. It was considered appropriate to select one from each of these three types of school.

In order to select the individual schools to fill the boxes of Table 4.2 and to represent the three types of New Zealand schools two methods were employed: representatives of the different education departments were invited to suggest schools they considered innovative in their deployment of resources and the questionnaires were studied to produce a list of possible schools. In effect the invitation to departments was too loosely expressed to produce sufficient information (only two States replied). As a result a list of schools was produced from the reading of the questionnaires. This first list comprised 75 schools: the list was broken down into different sectors and sizes in line with the proposal in Table 4.2 and in line with the proposal for selecting New Zealand schools, and within each category schools from amongst those listed were

actually recommended. These recommendations represented a compromise between resource constraints, selecting various issues, sampling from various school types and from various States, and sampling from within various sizes of schools. The number of schools offering interesting practices varied according to the different processes examined (for example composite groupings were very common, sub-schools less common, compatibility groupings very rare). In the instances where practices or issues considered interesting were very rare the case study schools almost selected themselves but in other instances a number of possible schools were still present. If one school offered more than one interesting practice it was considered to be more valuable for case study analysis than schools with just one interesting feature unless this latter feature could not be studied in other schools.

The list was presented to an advisory committee meeting and education department representatives were asked to comment on proposed schools and offer alternatives from within the list (or possibly outside of the list) where they saw reasons for changing proposals. In effect the meeting considered that 12 of the 16 proposals were satisfactory selections. The selection of a New Zealand intermediate school was challenged as that school had experienced some staffing difficulties and the suggested alternative not only did not come from the list of schools but had not been in the original sample. This caused some concern at first but it was decided to accept this proposal: the rationale for its inclusion was to match as closely as possible the initial choice of school. The principal of the second school agreed to fill in a copy of the schools survey questionnaire to provide background information. One medium-sized secondary school was replaced with another such school from a different system but from the original list: the argument for this was that the proposed school had been 'over-researched' and that none of the schools selected addressed the problems of schools sited in low socioeconomic areas with complex communities. The replacement school was intended to overcome this omission. The other replacements were two medium-sized primary schools (which were substituted for schools of similar size from the same system and from the original list of schools): it appeared that both of the original schools had experienced recent staff upheavals and this was felt to be a potential bias.

The Number of Schools Selected

As noted above 16 schools were finally selected for case study work. Both time and resource constraints had influenced this decision in addition to the influence of the issues and purposes that the case studies were intended to tackle. The constraint of time operated in three ways: there was a deadline set for the completion of the Staffing and Resources Study; some questionnaire analyses had been necessary as a prerequisite to case study selection; and it was considered desirable, if possible, not to study schools

late in their final term as this was known to be an inconvenient time for many schools.

The resource constraints centred on the limited number of personnel available at the Australian Council for Educational Research (two full-time researchers and one part-time researcher worked on the project). Overall responsibility for the three levels of the Study had been divided amongst the group and although each person assisted in the different levels where possible there was in effect only one full-time researcher available to devote a considerable portion of time to the case studies.

At the time the case studies were first being planned, it was suggested that only 12 studies would be possible in the time available and this would allow only a few days in each school. By the middle of 1980 when the details were being finalized, it was clear that the purposes and issues to be tackled necessitated at least 16 studies. In earlier discussions some members of the advisory committee had suggested that, by making use of fieldworkers from the different systems, in addition to ACER personnel, and by using a tightly constructed interview schedule when approaching schools, the number of schools could be increased. In fact, consideration was given to conducting two levels of case studies:

- a limited number of indepth studies; and
- a wider number of shorter, more structured studies.

Although resources precluded this two-level approach it was clear that the choice of fieldworkers and methodology to be employed would in part determine the number of schools that could be approached.

Fieldworkers for the Study

In the original proposal it was suggested that although ACER would take the co-ordinating role in these studies use would be made of departmental research teams to study schools in detail. In addition, during discussions with teachers associations it was also suggested teachers might be involved in fieldwork, either to study their own or other schools. At that time it was believed that probably the major danger of using departmental staff for case studies was that schools may see an inspectorial element in this and therefore feel threatened. The schools survey had been designed so as to avoid the necessity of schools dealing with their education departments (for example questionnaires were sent direct to schools and returned direct to the ACER) in the belief that this would increase the response rate. Correspondingly it was argued that if departments were to be involved some schools could refuse to participate and the extent of participation of others (that is the quality of information provided) could be questionable.

A further argument against involvement of other fieldworkers related to the theoretical, ethical and ideological commitments of the case study researcher. In the

previous chapter it was argued that fieldworkers do have their own preconceptions and that they should be as much students of their own reactions as they are students of the culture or clients beyond. Although ACER personnel, like any other personnel, have this problem it was thought that additional use of fieldworkers might widen the potential for bias and at best require careful training to avoid hazards. Even if such hazards could have been avoided it is not easy to be able to establish empirically that such problems have been overcome.

Similar considerations existed with respect to the possible use of teachers as fieldworkers. The greatest advantage was considered to be the depth of knowledge they would have of their own schools (if they were to be used in this way). In addition it was felt that their involvement could help in getting the co-operation of schools to participate. Weighed against this was the possibility that teachers would be reluctant to reveal private views to a colleague/researcher. Other problems might occur with respect to the availability of teachers during term times and the question of payment.

The outcome of these deliberations was that on balance ACER researchers should have the responsibility for the fieldwork in the 16 selected schools and where departmental personnel wished to have an involvement in the case study aspect of the Study it was suggested that additional schools be selected, either by ACER or the departments. It was expected that the fieldwork and writing of these additional studies would be the reponsibility of the departments. Advantages of this procedure were the separation of the 'biases' from within one case study to between case studies, and the possiblity that each department could address issues considered important to its own system but given only partial consideration in the other studies.

In general, this strategy was accepted although additional case studies were not in fact undertaken and in only one school did a member of the department's research team accompany the ACER researcher. His role, however, was more one of observation than of direct involvement in the research.

Methodology to be Employed in Case Study Visits

In discussions held early in the course of the study few suggestions were made with respect to methodology: it was considered that the method or methods of data collection and the varieties of data required would depend upon the issues to be tackled and at this stage these had not been defined. It was felt, however, in line with the eclectic nature of case study research that a variety of techniques would be likely: interviews of staff and possibly students to widen the perspectives gained from the questionnaire which was (in most cases) filled in by the principal alone or in conjunction with a few of his senior staff; the possible use of instruments to provide information from students and teachers in addition to inverview techniques; analysis of school

records; possible observation of classroom activities, committee meetings etc.

At a later stage, following from the argument that pedagogical case studies used to suggest possible action for schools or systems require some sort of assessment of their effectiveness (even though case studies cannot provide definitive answers to questions about the effects of different practices), it was felt that the opportunity should be taken to gauge, through the use of already designed instruments, the attitudes of staff and students to their school life. These pre-designed instruments were to supplement the more informal discussions and observations. The particular instruments selected are described in detail in the following section.

Apart from this general strategy a twofold approach to the methodology was suggested. With respect to the innovative issue or issues to be examined in each school the methodology used would vary. For example, the study of decision-making structures could involve detailed use of records of meetings, discussions with staff and possibly observation of meetings. Other issues might require only interviews with staff. With respect to the core set of issues to be studied in each school it was argued that pre-designed instruments would be suitable for tackling such issues as this would simplify much of the case study work as well as provide some basis for comparison between schools. As one part of this, an instrument developed by Holdaway (1978) for measuring teacher satisfaction on a number of scales was adopted for use in the study. This instrument was still, however, used as a general guide for researchers in informal discussions with staff.

Although classroom observation was advocated as a possible research strategy it was necessarily accepted that it would have limited applicability in the studies. Constraints of time and resources coupled with the need to complete at least 16 studies meant that the fieldwork for any one school study could not last longer than three or four days. Observation methods in such circumstances could not be formalized: few classes or meetings, for example, could be visited and a great deal of bias could flow from such a limited number of observations. As a result, observation was used in a limited form and only as a complement to other techniques: a form of triangulation.

In one sense, then, the methodology was not the same as in many case studies which involved researchers spending large periods of time in the research setting. To an extent this meant that the depth of information obtained was more limited but it possibly also meant that some of the problems of intervention referred to in earlier theoretical sections were lessened.

Although observation was not advocated as a major methodology the problem of 'data sampling' referred to earlier was tackled by a standard proposal for discussions with a wide range of personnel so as to ensure a wide perspective on different issues. In the approach to the schools it was suggested that fieldworkers would talk to:

- the principal or acting principal;
- the assistant or deputy principals, where appropriate;
- at least two of the senior staff of the school;
- as many assistant class teachers as possible;
- as many operating support staff as possible; and
- members of school councils, boards or parents associations, where possible.

In addition, in the letter to each school those special features of the school that influenced its selection were noted and principals were asked to check that the range of personnel suggested for interview was suitable for the key issues selected. In many schools, principals ensured that fieldworkers saw several people with special knowledge in certain areas.

The selection of people to talk to, while guided by the strategy above, was necessarily unstructured. In small schools fieldworkers would generally see most or all staff in the three or four days. In larger schools this was impossible: in most cases a list of potential candidates for interview was drawn up with the principal but this was often modified if other people were suggested or if teachers were unavailable. The availability of teachers for interview was expected to be a problem but in fact was not. In many schools principals or their deputies took classes while researchers spent between 15 and 30 minutes with class teachers, in other schools researchers were informed of teachers' timetables to contact them in their free time and in one or two schools researchers relied on the staff room approach; that is they sat in the staff room talking to different teachers as they came in. In all schools fieldworkers tried to ensure they spoke to a wide range of staff: from different faculties, year levels, experience levels, and so on.

With respect to talks with school council or parent association members, fieldworkers would attend meetings if they were planned and if not they would still usually be able to contact some key members.

Another aspect of the methodology employed related to the number of fieldworkers engaged in each case study. The advantage of having at least two researchers in each school had been listed in earlier discussions: it was considered that would better enable confirmations or disconfirmations of studied processes and therefore reduce the potential bias of a single worker. It was accepted however that the use of two fieldworkers would not always be practicable for financial and logistical reasons. Consequently the policy on this was left flexible and wherever possible two researchers conducted the case study. The first two school visits involved all three fieldworkers. In practice seven of the case studies were conducted by one researcher alone and this occurred in four of the systems. Table 4.3 shows how the work load was spread across the researchers.

Table 4.3 Use of Fieldworkers in the Sixteen Case Study Schools

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
Fieldworker 1[a]	*	*	*	*				*	*	*	*	*	*	*		
Fieldworker 2	*	*			*	*	*	*	*	*					*	*
Fieldworker 3	*	*									*	*			*	*

[a] The author of this report.

The Instruments Used

In examining the views of students and teachers two questionnaires were used. The Quality of School Life questionnaire (Williams et al., 1981; Batten and Girling-Butcher, 1981) was used to assess the views which students held about school life and the Satisfaction with Teaching questionnaire was used to obtain teachers' views.

The Satisfaction with Teaching questionnaire was adapted from a similar questionnaire devised by Holdaway (1978) for use with Canadian teachers. In the adaptation (which was performed by Ainley and Fordham at the Australian Council for Educational Research as part of another project) several items were omitted and others reworded to suit Australian circumstances. The questionnaire contained 43 items to which teachers responded on a six-point scale. The 43 items were structured around seven scales and one item concerned with general satisfaction. In addition there were two items which invited teachers to nominate the factors which contributed most to their overall satisfaction and dissatisfaction with teaching. The seven scales concerned recognition and status, students, resources, teaching assignment and autonomy, involvement with senior and other staff, work load, and remuneration. Copies of the questionnaire were given to all teachers who were asked to return them direct to the researchers. Details of the questionnaire and its properties have been extensively reported by Fordham (in press) and the questionnaire is presented in Appendix I.

There were two versions of the Quality of School Life questionnaire: one was devised for secondary students (it was administered to Years 9 and 11 students) and the other was devised for primary students (it was administered to students in their last year of schooling). In New Zealand the secondary version was used in the intermediate school as students there were a little older than in Australian primary schools. However in the contributing school and in the full primary school the primary version was used; in the full primary school it was administered to students in a year level (at this school students were in composite classes containing students from three year levels) roughly equivalent to the final year of a contributing school.

The questionnaire used for secondary students had been devised by Williams, Batten and Girling-Butcher at the Australian Council for Educational Research in another study

Table 4.4 The Structure of the School Life Questionnaire

Societal expectations	School structure	Student experience
Technical Competence	Certification	Opportunity
Personal Development	Instruction	Adventure
Social Integration	Socialization	Identity
Social Responsibility	Supervision	Status

(Williams and Batten 1981; Batten and Girling-Butcher, 1981). It had originally been used with students aged 14 (roughly equivalent to Year 9) but had also been used with Year 10, Year 11, Year 12 students and with school leavers. The questionnaire for primary students was adapted from the secondary one by simplifying the language and reducing the number of items. Unfortunately, however, insufficient time was available to submit this revised questionnaire to trial and as a result it was decided to administer it in a different way to the secondary questionnaire. In the latter case students were informed how to complete the questionnaire and then asked to complete it (they could ask questions of the researcher or teacher who administered the instrument) whereas in the case of the primary questionnaire teachers were asked to read out the questions to the students who then ticked the appropriate box. Teachers could clarify any difficulties students encountered. However, it should be born in mind that this latter questionnaire was not given preliminary trial and that the process of administration differed from one school to the next depending on whether the school wished the researcher or the teacher to administer it. It had been decided that rather than jeopardize co-operation or disrupt routines by strict adherence to rigid procedures the schools could opt for whatever administering format suited them. In some instances the questionnaires were administered a few days after the case study visit as that timing was more convenient.

The secondary questionnaire contained 71 items to which students were asked to respond on a four-point scale from definitely agree to definitely disagree. The items concerned general satisfaction (two items) and four scales designated as status, opportunity, adventure and identity. These four scales derived from a view of the societal expectations of schooling as involving four functions: the achievement of competence, the enhancement of personal development, the generation of social integration, and the nurturing of social responsibility (Mitchell and Spady, 1978). The four major areas of student experience indicated below are related to these functions as indicated by the model shown in Table 4.4. (See Batten and Girling-Butcher, 1981).

The version developed for primary students contained only 26 items but was structured around the same view as that determining the longer version. Copies of both the secondary and primary questionnaires are presented in Appendices II and III.

Results obtained from the School Life questionnaires should be regarded as tentative for a number of reasons. First the instruments were still in the process of development at the time they were used. In fact an analysis conducted as part of another study suggested that in addition to a scale of general satisfaction with school and a scale measuring negative affect, four other dimensions could be independently and reliably measured. Three of these corresponded to the hypothesized domains of status, identity and opportunity and the fourth seemed better designated as a measure of teacher-student relations than of adventure in learning. Second, it was not possible to make allowance for the influence of background factors such as students' prior experience on the responses given by students. Third, the sampling procedures at each school varied somewhat and were not strictly random. Fourth, as stated, the administering of the instrument varied from school to school.

Just as the results should be regarded as tentative, so the purposes for which the instruments (student and teacher) were used were also tentative. The instruments were used as one method of gauging the 'effectiveness' of school practices (see Chapter 2). Only the secondary questionnaire had been used on a national sample of students and therefore only that instrument had any basis for a more general comparison of results. However, any link between the results of the instruments and the processes employed in schools had to be very tentative. These instruments were taken from different sources and were devised for different purposes, not for measuring the effectiveness of either resource deployment or school organizational processes. Nevertheless, certain relationships between the two can be hypothesized and in such cases the information can be used as part of a chain of information intended to illuminate effectiveness.

The Timing of the Case Studies

The possibility of long-term studies which would take account of different resource practices occurring over the year was discounted for practical reasons although it was considered to be an ideal approach. In the event, for practical reasons most studies took place in third term 1980 even though second term could have been less disruptive to schools; two studies were conducted towards the end of second term and the remainder at different times during third term. The very beginning and very end of terms were avoided whenever possible.

The Approach to Schools

In the theoretical section in the previous chapter it was pointed out that the interventive nature of the case study, and of naturalistic research in general, could present certain problems. Case studies almost inevitably disrupt the normal functioning of schools. As a

result, in such research it is essential that the fullest co-operation is gained from the participating schools before studies begin otherwise hostility at such disruption might later be forthcoming.

Several processes are involved in this. Firstly, it is not sufficient to seek permission to approach schools from the principal alone. The case study would involve other teachers, ancillary staff etc., and to the extent that fieldworkers would be present in the school for a short period of time it would affect all school personnel. A necessary prerequisite to gaining successful co-operation involves the support of all personnel. In the case of the Staffing and Resources Study it was considered that this was best achieved by an initial approach to the principal of each school explaining the purposes and likely products of the research. If schools had any queries concerning their involvement, ACER staff could either visit the school (where schools were not too distant from Melbourne) or alternatively send more detailed information. In the initial letter it was suggested that principals should consult closely with the staff who would be affected by the visit to the school.

The Staffing and Resources Study involved the co-operation of education departments in Australia and New Zealand. These departments had their own principles governing the approach that research organizations could make to schools. Although all representatives accepted that a letter should be sent from the ACER, in three systems the education department first contacted the school to 'warn' them of a forthcoming invitation to participate in the case studies and giving departmental encouragement for this involvement. In one system where much educational administration is delegated to regions, the ACER was also asked to seek approval from the regional directors responsible for the schools selected.

Adelman et al. (1976) have argued for an explicit research contract stating clearly the credentials of the research team, the scope of the proposal, the extent of involvement in the school by the researchers, the extent of likely disruption and the principles governing access to and use of information. In the letter to schools it was hoped these guidelines were followed. Confidentiality was ensured as the names of all schools were changed in the reports, and a draft of the case study report was sent to each school for verification and modification. In further contact with the school it was also made clear that, subject to approval from the funding agencies, the participating schools would receive a copy of the final report bringing together ideas from all the case study visits.

The Writing and Feedback Stage

In all the documents prepared during the course of the case studies, it was argued that each school should receive a copy of the report of visits and of the final report. There

was discussion as to whether the report format for the school should differ from that for the Study but in effect, as the case study reports were mainly to be source material for the final overview report, it was decided that one report for each school would be prepared for use by the school and researchers.

The strategy for writing consisted of preparing a draft report and forwarding this to the school for comments and for request of additional material that may have been overlooked in the original visit. The school comments enabled clarification of misinterpretations, correction of factual errors and the addition of aspects completely overlooked. At a more delicate level it also enabled rephrasing of sentences or sections that schools were concerned about. With respect to the redrafting stage, alterations, at the request of the school, have not been great: the major redrafting has followed ACER's request for extra information. Once redrafting had been completed schools were sent a final copy of the report of the visit.

The format for writing each report developed during the writing of the first case studies and evolved into a fairly standard structure for each school. The reports consisted of three sections concerning either constraints or influences operating on the school, two sections on issues of resource allocation and the school program, a summary section, and an appendix concerned with the administration of the School Life and Satisfaction with Teaching instruments. Included in the constraints and influences sections would be discussions of:

- social environment of the school catchment area;
- enrolment characteristics;
- school philosophy;
- teaching and ancillary staff characteristics;
- material resources available;
- financial resources available;
- building characteristics;
- decision-making organizations (school committees, staff councils, parent-teacher associations, etc.); and
- departmental guidelines and constraints.

The resource allocation sections would include discussions of:

- the school curriculum;
- the 'extra-curriculum' (that is clubs and other school activities available to students outside of school hours);
- grouping of students;
- allocation of staff (teachers and ancillary staff);
- use of community resources; and
- allocation of staff time according to different duties.

Feedback to schools in some instances required more than the process of redrafting reports. In one or two schools staff asked for additional material on the results of the student Quality of School Life instrument. In one school the results of the instrument contradicted the perceptions of the principal and he sought clarification of the result and consequently ACER analysed the results of individuals to detect any discernible pattern.

Summary

The preceding sections have described how case studies were conducted in the Staffing and Resources Study. As this follows the theoretical section it enables readers to judge for themselves to what extent some of the developing principles of case study methodology were adhered to. The sections describe the development of a strategy for research: final decisions were based on optimizing the problem of resource contraints with ideal strategies. Compromises were necessarily made (for example in the methodologies employed and length of time each school could be studied) but it woud be a unique research project that was not forced to make some compromises in its strategy.

CHAPTER 5

THE SIXTEEN SCHOOLS

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a brief description of each of the 16 schools visited so as to make the later discussions of issues within these schools more easily understood. The schools visited are described in alphabetic order within each of the different school sectors.

Primary Schools

Boldrewood

Boldrewood was a medium sized school (enrolment: 335) located in a relatively old suburb some six miles from the centre of a capital city. About 20 per cent of students were from non-English-speaking backgrounds and the principle ethnic groups were Greek and Italian. The school took enrolments from Year K through to Year 7 as well as having a special class for emotionally disturbed students. The school was organized into three vertically grouped 'sub-schools' each of which occupied one of the major open-plan areas of the school. Within the sub-schools most classes were of composite formation. The sub-school organization had affected the processes of decision making in the school as well as having some effect on the co-ordination of the school program. The specialist program at the school, in particular the multicultural education program, was especially important.

Clarke

Clarke was a large school (enrolment: 1072) in which enrolments had grown steadily over the past decade. The school was located in a township 150 miles inland from the coast and a little further away from the nearest large centre. The population of the township was fairly transient as it served two large coal mines where employment opportunities were good and wages high. The school mainly drew students from families connected with the mines and it was considered that a large number of children had low language skills. The school enrolled students from Year 1 to Year 7: in addition a fairly autonomous kindergarten was located on the school grounds. The teaching staff at Clarke were both young and very inexperienced in teaching: most remained at the school for only a short period of time. As a result of this a series of procedures had been initiated to provide for professional and curriculum development. The implementation of policy was arranged through the establishment of three semi-autonomous departments. Students were grouped in single year level classes and a limited amount of team teaching occurred, in particular in the five blocks which allowed for large open spaces. The

school operated a fairly comprehensive specialist program and had taken steps to incorporate specialist teaching into the general program.

Franklin

Franklin was a medium-sized school (enrolment: 560) located in a provincial city. Up until the middle sixties the area had been of relatively low socioeconomic status but the pattern had been changing since then. The school took enrolments from Year K (there was also provision for a pre-school enrolment as well as a program of parent-child sessions) to Year 6. The school was organized along fairly conventional lines. Classes were, with two exceptions, organized in single year level groupings. The buildings were modern and contained a variety of types of teaching areas. It had a mixture of multiple teacher spaces and single teacher spaces with some of the latter arranged in pairs to facilitate co-operative teaching. Franklin was part of a school system which provided each school with significant financial resources to be used at the discretion of the school. These finances could be used to employ additional staff. Franklin had used some of these resources to employ a varied specialist staff and at the time of the visit the school was evolving methods of most effectively integrating specialist staff with the school program. There was a high level of community involvement in the school, an involvement which was facilitated by the substantial pre-school provision.

Mansfield

Mansfield was a small New Zealand full primary school (enrolment: 225) situated in a small country town some 50 miles from the nearest large centre. The school took enrolments from new entrants through to Form 2 (roughly equivalent to Year 7 in Australia). The enrolment dictated that some composite classes had to be arranged, but as part of the school's child-focused philosophy which stressed the social and personal development of children, careful arrangements had been made to form compatibility groupings of students. Within this philosophy students were given considerable involvement in the teaching structures at the school. Although the design of the school was based around single teacher classrooms there was considerable movement of staff from one group to another. As part of the role of the school in a small rural community, the principal had been involved in developing new structures and processes for involving the community in the school.

Marsh

Marsh was a medium-sized New Zealand contributing school (enrolment: 552) providing six years of education from new entrants to Standard 4 (roughly equivalent to Year 5 in Australia). The school was situated in an outlying district of one of the main centres of the country. Historically the district had developed into a stable and somewhat

conservative area. The buildings were based around single teacher classrooms. At Marsh the school had introduced a form of team teaching in which 'teams' or 'syndicates' of teachers operated with flexible groupings of students. Class allocations varied across these teams but composite groupings were the more usual pattern. The school operated special reading schemes for which it had to husband its resources carefully and also operated a Polynesian studies program.

Morant

Morant Primary School was a small school (enrolment: 154) located in an industrial area which would be classified as of low socioeconomic status. It was estimated that as many as 35 per cent of students came from single parent families. The school took enrolments from Year K through to Year 6. Its form of organization was fairly conventional but because of its size and the number of staff it had no alternative but to teach some year levels as composite classes. It had in recent years experienced a decline in enrolments which was accompanied by a disproportionate decline in the resources available to it. In general, the rooms were single space classrooms, only one pair of rooms being capable of re-arrangement to form a larger area through a movable partition. Within the limitations imposed upon it, Morant had implemented an integrated reading scheme across the school in which parents were involved and in which older students assisted younger students.

Pritchard

Pritchard was a medium-sized New Zealand intermediate school (enrolment: 450) providing just two years of education roughly equivalent to Years 6 and 7 in Australian schools. The school was located in a moderately sized rural town and the surrounding area was relatively affluent. The school had developed a philosophy, a program, and a pattern of resource allocation which could be, perhaps too oversimply, characterized as 'open education'. As part of its mode of operation it incorporated co-operative teaching, composite age grouping, and considerable individualization in planning student programs. The school had been divided into four equivalent sub-schools, and considerable devolution of decision making to these schools had taken place. The school buildings represented part of a tentative move towards an open-plan design. The school had allocated to it a fairly large number of specialist staff. These staff were trained for secondary school.

Rudd

Rudd was a medium-sized school (enrolment: 414) located in a relatively new suburb of a capital city. The school took enrolments from Year K to Year 6 and, with one exception, classes were organized to avoid composite groupings. There was a special class for students with impaired hearing. The buildings contained mainly single teacher spaces

with three open areas. The school was organized to provide for co-operative teaching between pairs of teachers at each year level. Rudd had developed a number of ways of organizing times at which class teachers were released from regular teaching. In these ways and by involving teachers in commitments out of school hours, the school had been able to establish a number of school-based curriculum committees. Through these committees the school had developed a series of carefully considered and extensive curriculum statements. The school also had a policy of openness with regard to the involvement of parents at the school.

Secondary Schools

Brennan

Brennan was a medium-sized all girls school (enrolment: 806). The school was an interesting example of the means which schools can use to attempt to provide for a student population which over a period of only a few years had changed dramatically in character. Up until the early seventies Brennan served a traditional urban working-class area that was similar in most respects to many suburbs in the same city and in other larger cities. Over the past few years however the ethnic mix of Brennan changed significantly, largely as the result of Turkish and Arabic immigration into the area. The non-English-speaking background of many of these students created extra pressures on the school, pressures which prompted Brennan to seek additional resources and develop innovative programs to meet the diverse needs of its student body. The school took enrolments from Year 7 to Year 12 but retention to Years 11 and 12 was relatively low. At Brennan there was general acceptance of the view that to develop students to the limit of their cognitive potential it was necessary to group by ability levels. The school had built a pastoral program into the curriculum offerings and had provided considerable in-service activities for the staff. Buildings and materials were perceived to be inadequate and classrooms were designed as single-teacher spaces. The school had also developed a structure of year level co-ordination.

Dennis

Dennis was a medium-sized technical school (enrolment: 685) located in a working-class residential area of a capital city. The school took enrolments from Year 7 to Year 11. The school had attempted to organize its resources so that classes were of the smallest possible size. Although the curriculum structure was orthodox, as a technical school a number of vocationally oriented studies were offered and the need to offer such studies affected the way in which resources could be allocated. The school also incorporated a number of administrative features common to technical schools. Among these were the long-established role of the school council and principal in administering the school

budget and employing non-teaching staff, the recently established practice of involving the school council in the appointment of senior staff, and the fact that a significant proportion of staff had experience in industry. Internally the school buildings were based around single-teacher classrooms and the school was located on a split site. The school had developed a decision-making structure that enabled involvement of all staff in policy formulation, and had established a structure of year level co-ordination.

Kendall

Kendall College was a medium-sized example of a new development in Australian education: the senior college (enrolment: 687). Such institutions provide education for students in Years 11 and 12 and have only recently become an established part of two education systems in Australia. The rationale for their establishment involved both educational and administrative considerations. Educationally they were expected to provide a broad curriculum which incorporated considerable student choice and they were expected to allow greater scope for students to manage their own affairs. Consistent with this view the colleges were expected to have considerable autonomy in curriculum matters. Administratively it was expected that such institutions would be a more efficient means of providing resources for the specialist studies undertaken by students in the senior levels of secondary school. Kendall was located in a recently established residential suburban area of a capital city. Retention of students to Year 12 in the surrounding region was very high. The school was located in buildings which incorporated a variety of different types of teaching spaces. A great deal of authority was vested in the governing council of the school and internally the school had developed a sophisticated committee structure for decision making. The curriculum structure was organized around term-based units. Each course offered consisted of a combination of units in a discipline or interdisciplinary area. Year 11 and Year 12 students could take the same unit. A well-organized system of counselling for students had been initiated.

Lawson

Lawson was a medium-sized school (enrolment: 706) located on the fringe of the outer suburban area of a capital city. The town near which the school was located had retained an essentially rural character. Lawson High School was innovative in its organizational structure in three important respects. Firstly it operated a sub-school structure providing separate types of program for a junior school (Year 7), a middle school (Years 8-10), and a senior school (Years 11 and 12). Secondly in the middle school students were taught in vertically integrated, or composite classes over Years 8-10. Finally the middle school was organized around term-length elective units rather than year-length subjects. In conjunction with the sub-school structure the school had developed a system of school co-ordinators. The school comprised a series of

single-teacher classrooms. Internally the decision-making structures had been designed to involve staff both through committees and the full staff meeting. The school had also developed a system of pastoral care for its students.

Lindsay

Lindsay was a large school (enrolment: 1095) located in a mixed socioeconomic residential area on the western fringe of a capital city. Lindsay High School was innovative in its organizational structure as a result of the formation of a series of sub-schools. Three of these sub-schools took students from Years 8, 9, 10, operating vertically so as to include approximately 100 Year 8, 100 Year 9 and 100 Year 10 students in each sub-school, and the fourth sub-school took students from the upper school (Years 11 and 12), which comprised approximately 250 students. To go hand in hand with the sub-school structure, positions of co-ordinators and assistant co-ordinators had been developed. The development of the sub-school had required some architectural change and extra resources. It was devised mainly as a response to a need to provide pastoral care in a large school. Certain adaptations had been needed to meet the wishes of some subject departments and to meet the aim of providing a general education. Classrooms in the school were organized as single-teacher spaces. Although the curriculum was fairly orthodox an alternative program had been devised at Year 11 and a Remedial Teaching Task Force developed. Pastoral care provision had been provided both by the sub-school structure and a series of contact groups. Setting (a form of ability grouping) was a common practice in some departments.

Palmer

Palmer was a large school (enrolment: 1245) located in the outer suburbs of a capital city. In socioeconomic terms the area was fairly mixed. The school enrolled students from Year 8 to Year 12 and retention to Year 12 was above average. As part of a philosophy that encouraged both student and teacher involvement in decisions which affected their lives, Palmer High School had incorporated into its organizational structure a number of interesting features. First, it had developed a sophisticated system of decision making including the determination of internal policy by an elected staff council. Second, the school had developed a system of 'unscheduled time'. A proportion of students' time was not timetabled for specific subject lessons and in this untimetabled segment students chose what work they would do, where, and with whom they would do it. Third, the curriculum was organized to provide students with a wide range of choices to complement the rationale behind the 'unscheduled time' scheme. Also, a system of alternative education for Years 11 and 12 students had been developed to assist them in the transition from school to the wider community. In addition to these structures the school had developed a small sub-school of about 250 students. This

school began in 1978 with a small group of volunteer staff committed to the belief that closer relationships between students and teachers resulted in a better learning atmosphere. A Learning Assistance Program had been developed which involved the use of parents and some senior students in helping students with learning difficulties. Finally, the school had developed an extensive system of pastoral care.

Richardson

Richardson was a small school (enrolment: 248) located in a small coastal township about 50 miles from the nearest large centre. The community was rural and most employment was related to the farms or mills. As Richardson was an attractive coastal town a large proportion of the staff of the school had chosen to settle in the area rather than seek promotion through transfer. As a result, although education department staffing formulae had recently altered so as to deny the school subject masters, there was a fairly experienced staff. The school took enrolments from Years 8 to 12 although retention to Year 12 was not high. Buildings were based around single-teacher classrooms. The small size of the school had implications for curriculum offerings, administrative duties and welfare. The school had recently undergone a co-operative evaluation which had examined all aspects of the school program.

District High Schools

Paterson

Paterson District High School was located in a very small country town some 150 miles inland from the state capital and coast. The township served a wheat farming community. Paterson was unusual in its organizational structure in that it was an example of a school with pre-primary, primary, and secondary enrolments. There were 74 students enrolled in the secondary section which catered for students in Years 8, 9 and 10 and there were 188 students enrolled in the primary years 1 to 7. The pre-primary centre was located some distance from the school on another site. As a result of its isolation and as a response to the belief that the school should provide as wide a range of offerings as possible, the school had involved parents and the community in the program and teachers had offered to teach varied subjects. The issue of the characteristics of staff needed to teach in such schools, especially in the secondary area where staff are quasi-head of departments, is a key issue. Some interaction between the secondary and primary areas of the school had been possible, in part as a response to the initiation of a 'language and learning' approach to teaching. In the primary school enrolments had dictated composite groupings. The style of classrooms, with some single-teacher and some multiple-teacher space, provided an opportunity for a flexible teaching approach.

CHAPTER 6

PATTERNS OF GROUPING OF STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

The purpose of this chapter is to examine and compare the responses made by the 16 schools to issues connected with the allocation of students in the school and the deployment of teachers to classes. The chapter is therefore concerned with two of the six sets of issues that guided the methodology for case studies:

- procedures for allocating students to classes; and
- procedures for allocating teachers to classes.

In addition, the chapter is concerned with sub-school or unit organizations as these structures affect the allocation of both teachers and students. At later stages of this report these structures will be discussed as they relate to different issues. The purpose of the following section is to describe briefly these patterns and the reasons for their development.

The Unit or Sub-school Organization of Schools

A number of primary and secondary schools have organized themselves into a series of sub-schools or units. The reasons for this may be various: for example, to provide greater welfare provisions by catering for smaller groups of students; to provide varying curriculum structures or teaching styles; to devolve administrative responsibility; or to develop co-operative teaching styles. There has been little research conducted into sub-schools. In Chapter 9 of this report the literature on school size and on sub-school organization used to generate a welfare role is reviewed in the section concerning the academic/pastoral aspects of a school program.

In Western Australia, an evaluation of Lockridge Primary School (Maisey and Deschamp, 1979) provides one example of research into sub-schools developed for reasons other than welfare issues. The development of three sub-schools in that school was intended to match the variety of teaching styles preferred by teachers and the variety of learning styles beneficial to students. Under the older more traditional system, the open plan areas had created problems as a result of the different expectations in relation to noise and movement and the like that were present. There existed at the school two sizable groups of staff, one group committed to a one-teacher/one-classroom style of teaching and the other to a more flexible style. A third group advocated a compromise approach. The three sub-schools, then, reflected an 'open', 'traditional' and 'intermediate' approach.

The teachers were overwhelmingly in favour of continuing the sub-school system and were almost unanimous in agreeing that their particular sub-school should be

retained. There were four areas that most teachers saw as important and/or needing further clarification, policy development and action.

(1) The placement of teachers in a sub-school: compatibility between teachers and the methods and philosophies of the sub-school they work in was considered to be crucial.

(2) The placement of students in a sub-school. The difficulty was that of achieving an appropriate balance between placing students according to the wishes of parents, the characteristics of the child and the organizational pressures of the system. It was also considered important to develop acceptable procedures for identifying and transferring students who were not suited to a sub-school.

(3) The failure of all sub-schools to make satisfactory progress towards their parent and community involvement objectives.

(4) A need for increased contact between teachers in different sub-schools to enable the exchange of ideas and methods and to guarantee similarities in standards of work. (Maisey and Deschamp, 1979:7)

The evaluation was also designed to provide information for each sub-school about the teachers' perceptions of progress towards achievement of the particular sub-school's aims, the strengths and weaknesses of the sub-school's approach and recommendations for improvements.

The grouping of students into sub-schools can be performed in a variety of ways as well as for a variety of purposes: horizontal (that is groups distinguishable by age), vertical (mixed age groupings) or a combination of both. Yates (1971) has noted that various hypotheses have been advanced in favour of both vertical and horizontal groupings:

> The arguments in favour of vertical grouping are somewhat similar to those that are advanced for the smaller-scale version of this kind of organization which is gaining favour in some primary schools, where it is described as family grouping. The opportunity for pupils of different ages to meet and to share some of their activities is held to offer benefits to juniors and seniors alike. An effective house system - and certain other forms of vertical grouping such as clubs and societies - can bring together in a purposeful way those who in their day-to-day scholastic work are almost inevitably kept apart. It affords to the older pupils a chance to develop qualities of responsible leadership and it can serve to motivate younger pupils to try to emulate the achievements of those whose relative maturity they find impressive and challenging.
>
> The major argument on behalf of horizontal grouping is that the total age-range of a secondary school, particularly if it runs from eleven to eighteen, is far from homogeneous. Within this total assembly it is possible to identify groups that are so distinctive with regard to their educational and social needs as to require a degree of isolation from the rest. They need teachers, for example, who understand and are adequately trained to satisfy these needs, and an opportunity not only to work alongside their peers but also to pursue their recreations without being forced to mix with others who are at a different stage of development and, therefore, do not share their interests. (Yates, 1971:74-5)

The following sections describe the pattern of sub-school organization in the schools visited.

Sub-schools and Provision for Pastoral Care

The traditional format of class allocation in primary schools (one teacher to one class) has tended to suggest that pastoral care could be provided in the class setting and does not require special structures. Among the primary schools visited, however, was one example of a school which had used a sub-school structure for these purposes. In addition, one secondary school had done so.

Boldrewood. At Boldrewood Primary School, the most innovative organizational development was the manner in which students and teachers were grouped together in units. Table 6.1 details the organizational structure at this school. The K-7 structure developed at Boldrewood for several reasons. Among these, was the concern of the staff that the horizontal form of student grouping which had previously operated at the school, namely to allocate the junior year levels to one unit with the intermediate years and the senior years spread equally between the other two units, did not encourage social cohesion within the student body. It was argued that tolerance and understanding of other age groups in general, and school-yard discipline in particular, would be likely to improve if during classes students from different year levels worked in close contact with each other. Secondly, it was hoped that a K-7 structure would allow teachers to obtain a better understanding of the learning needs and capabilities of year levels other than that which they were currently teaching. It was felt also that the K-7 structure offered greater potential for older students to assist younger students, and for students to be grouped according to their levels of capability. Finally, it was argued that the K-7 structure was likely to facilitate the enrolment of Year 1 students and generally to lessen the concern felt by some students in moving from one year level to another.

Lindsay. With respect to the secondary schools visited three schools had initiated a system involving sub-schools. Only one had pastoral care as the major focus for the innovation, however. The sub-school structure at Lindsay High School involved four schools: three of these took students from Years 8, 9 and 10 operating vertically so as to include approximately 100 Year 8, 100 Year 9, and 100 Year 10 students in each, and the fourth took all Years 11 and 12 students which amounted to approximately 250 students. The structure came into operation in 1976. The overall purpose of the reorganization was to make the school more capable of dealing with individual students. This was felt to necessitate the subdivision of staff and students into smaller groups for the purposes of administration, instruction, and guidance. The proposed reorganization was a response to the perceived depersonalization of large schools and the consequent behavioural problems.

With respect to the grouping of students the Years 8 and 9 students would remain in the same sub-school each year. An attempt was made to allocate randomly the new intake to each sub-school. To some extent the mathematics department's policy of

Table 6.1 Unit Organization at Boldrewood Primary School, September 1980

Yellow Unit

Class enrolment

Year level	A	B	C	D	E	F
K	4					
1	10	10				
2	8	9				
3			12			
4			11	13		
5				13		
6					12	8
7					11	18
Total	22	19	23	26	23	26

6 general class teachers

1 multicultural education teacher (part-time)

1 teacher aide (part-time)

Green Unit

Class enrolment

Year level	A	B	C	D	E
K					
1					
2	1				
3	10				
4	13	10			
5		13	13	11	
6			11	15	7
7					17
Total	24	23	24	26	24

5 general class teachers

1 multicultural education teacher (part-time)

1 teacher aide (part-time)

Red Unit

Class enrolment

Year level	A	B	C	D	Special education
K					
1	10				
2	10				
3		25			
4			11		
5			13		
6				6	
7				17	
Total	20	25	24	23	3

4 general class teachers

1 special education teacher

2 teacher aides (part-time)

'setting' by forming ability-based classes which cut across the sub-schools affected the process but as far as possible that department attempted to ensure that the ability range over the three year levels was fairly similar in each sub-school.

Options teachers (optional subjects were offered across sub-school boundaries to provide greater curriculum choice) were nominally allocated to sub-schools on as equitable a basis as possible. In order to enable teachers to teach upper year levels the sub-school boundaries were treated as flexible.

Sub-schools and Curriculum Structures or Teaching Styles

Two of the schools visited had developed sub-school structures for these purposes. At Palmer the main rationale was to allow variation in teaching styles whereas at Lawson the rationale was to provide a greater breadth of subject offering and student involvement in curriculum matters.

Palmer's Mixed Faculty School. At Palmer High School a smaller sub-school called the Mixed Faculty School existed. The Mixed Faculty School comprised about 250 students in Years 8, 9 and 10 who chose this form of education. They were taught by teachers who especially wished to teach in a more intimate environment. In this school students did most of their work in the one building and came into contact with fewer teachers than their peers in the main school. For subjects which required special rooms and equipment, students moved into the specialist areas in the main school. Students who wished to choose this environment were requested to discuss it with their parents: the number of students who could join the sub-school was limited.

The development of the small sub-school reflected a somewhat different philosophical approach by the teachers involved. Although this approach was not opposed to the overall school philosophy, it probably differed from that of the majority of the teachers in the main school. The Mixed Faculty School began in 1978 with a small group of volunteer staff and students committed to the belief that closer relationships between students and teachers resulted in a better learning atmosphere. It was believed this atmosphere would result from the situation where a small group of teachers (approximately 12) was involved with a small group of students (approximately 250). However it was anticipated that the difference between the small sub-school and the main school would be greater than that of size alone: teaching methods would be more 'open', the teaching philosophies of the individual teachers would be more closely knit, and more collegiate decision making would occur. The curriculum itself was not expected to differ greatly from that of the main school.

The development of the Mixed Faculty School was marked by some dissension in the school and these feelings had not completely disappeared although staff reported that tensions between staff in the two schools had greatly lessened. The tensions

created seemed as much to do with poor communication between staff involved in both schools as to do with anything specific to the ideas involved. The decision to set up the school had been made at a staff council meeting which according to reports had involved rather strong debate. Opposition to the idea centred mainly on a concern about the relative inexperience of the advocates for the sub-school. In return some of the tensions had been created as a result of the implied criticism of the teaching styles of other staff in arguments supporting the need to set up an alternative school. The principal saw the development of the sub-school as a response to a stage in the school's history when teachers felt more limited and restricted by directives from senior staff. He did not take the view that the sub-school held a monopoly on experimentation but felt at the time it was a useful safety valve for teachers. He was concerned that other teachers might use the sub-school as a 'dumping ground' for difficult students. Generally the principal took the view that the decision-making structures which had enabled the sub-school to be set up provided sufficient safeguards to ensure that it operated in a satisfactory way.

In some ways the title Mixed Faculty School was confusing. The teaching of subjects in the school did not generally operate on an 'integrated studies' approach. The title really referred to the location of the school in that it was not located within any one faculty building but drew teachers from all faculties.

In practice there were a number of aspects of the sub-school that distinguished it from the main school. These facets could well operate in the main school but would be more common in the smaller school. One such practice was the system of 'contract teaching' which enabled students to participate in the choice of the curricula to be taught. The practice is discussed in more detail in Chapter 9 concerning the school program.

Organizationally there had been little problem in attracting the appropriate number of teachers to the small sub-school. One facet that discouraged some teachers from joining the sub-school was the high proportion of junior class teaching involved. Although teachers were given some senior class teaching the majority of their teaching was directed towards Years 8, 9 and 10. However, there had been problems with the number of students volunteering for the school: there were always too many Year 8 students opting for the Mixed Faculty School and consequently some pruning was necessary. It would appear from reports from staff that students experienced little problem in rejoining the main school at Year 11 and parental feedback concerning the school had been favourable.

The Mixed Faculty School had been subjected to a school-based evaluation in 1979. Some reservations had been expressed by some staff about the details of the evaluation and the final report had suggested the need for more analyses. The evaluation involved documenting the views of both teachers and students. Results indicated that the Mixed

Faculty School encouraged close student/teacher interactions, that a caring relationship existed in the sub-school, that students in the sub-school came in contact with far fewer teachers than those students in the main school, that students were able to get to know each other very well in the sub-school, that the majority of students favoured the idea of a negotiated curriculum and being involved in deciding how they should carry out their studies.

Lawson's sub-school structure. The rationale for this structure was predominantly related to providing student input to curriculum issues although at Year 7 a pastoral role was also seen. As both of these issues are separately discussed in Chapter 9 the structure at Lawson is only briefly described here.

Lawson operated a sub-school structure which provided for separate types of program for a Junior School (Year 7), a Middle School (Years 8 - 10), and a Senior School (Years 11 and 12). It appears, both from examining the documents prepared to support the introduction of this structure and from interviews with those involved in its implementation, that the prime arguments related to educational and curriculum issues rather than administrative issues. In the case for the Junior School it was argued that it would be desirable to operate a small relatively autonomous administrative unit with which students and staff might identify and in which an education program designed to ensure a smooth transition from primary school might be developed. In the case of the Middle School the arguments advanced primarily related to curriculum rather than to administrative or organizational theory, though there were some elements of organizational goals involved, as well as recognition of contingent organizational changes.

The Junior School was proposed as a coherent structure staffed by a small team of teachers who chose to work at this level under the guidance of a co-ordinator. Its rationale was twofold: to provide a small supportive environment to facilitate the social adjustment to secondary school of students, and to provide a common background of academic learning on which to build the subsequent years of secondary education. The allocation of staff to the sub-schools was the responsibility of the Senior, Middle and Junior School co-ordinators in conjunction with the faculty co-ordinators.

Sub-schools and Devolution of Administrative Responsibility

In effect, none of the schools had set up a sub-school structure solely for the purposes of administrative devolution. The pattern of several primary schools with considerable autonomy vested in the infant department or in the pre-school centre could be viewed as one form of administrative devolution. At Clarke School (with enrolments over 1000) a structure had been adopted which granted certain autonomy (under senior staff) to three departments: one for Years 1-3, one for Years 4-5 and one for Years 6-7.

One other school, Dennis Technical School, which was located on a split site had in the past made use of this split-site arrangement to operate two sub-schools: one for

Years 7 and 8 and the other for senior years. This experiment had however been abandoned because it was considered that communication was made difficult, that staff cohesion suffered, and that the notion of a separate sub-school when students in that school had to attend classes (for example in specialist trade areas) at the other site and vice versa was not satisfactory. Some staff felt the idea of a 'mini' or sub-school a good idea but not practicable at their school.

Sub-schools and Co-operative Teaching Styles

Although the structures adopted at Marsh and Mansfield can only very loosely be described as sub-school structures, it was fairly common that New Zealand schools be organized on a syndicate basis. Although such an arrangement carried with it some administrative devolution similar to that present with respect to infant departments in Australian schools, the major rationale of the system was to generate a concept of a co-operative or team approach to teaching students. At Marsh four syndicates operated (two in the junior school and two in the senior school) and at Mansfield two syndicates operated, one for the junior school and one for the senior school. A more sophisticated sub-school structure, designed to enhance this co-operative approach, had been designed at the other New Zealand school.

Pritchard's sub-school structure. At Pritchard, four teaching blocks had been created to cater for the 450 students from the two year levels that this school enrolled (equivalent to Australian Years 6 and 7). Students were allocated to each of the four blocks in such a way as to make each block similar to the general school population in such characteristics as year of schooling, sex, racial composition, academic ability and personality attributes. In 1980 the balance of Year 6 to Year 7 students in each of the four blocks was 64 : 76, 66 : 69, 66 : 41 and 39 : 31. When new entrants were allocated to blocks, background information from the contributing primary schools was used to ensure that in each of the four teams the groups were as similar as possible.

The rationale behind this development was twofold. Through the operation of teams much decision making in the school was devolved to teachers, a practice that the principal favoured. Also the operation of small teaching teams was seen to enhance the school philosophy of 'open' education. Co-operative teaching was common (for example in the development of units) and, depending upon choice of theme, students were taught by several teachers.

Summary

This section has described the means by which students and teachers are allocated to sub-schools. It has also attempted to explain the rationale behind the initiation of these organizational patterns and in some cases some of the perceived advantages or disadvantages. The argument for the introduction of sub-schools varied among the

schools, reflecting either a staff development, student development or curriculum influence. In later chapters these structures will be further reviewed.

Procedures for Allocating Students to Classes

Methods of grouping pupils are inevitably related to the type of course offered by schools. If a differentiated curriculum is provided, then the form of grouping must give effect to this decision but if, on the other hand, the aim is to provide a common curriculum then the grouping structure remains an open question. Necessarily this implies a distinction between secondary and primary schools, but this distinction may not in all cases be so pronounced: secondary schools in their early years may offer a common curriculum more akin to that normally expected of a primary school, and some primary schools may be moving more towards a secondary concept of allowing grouping to be determined to some extent by student choice of subjects.

In very general terms it is possible to distinguish three broad types of grouping practices that occur in primary and secondary schools. The first relates to the extent that schools group students along year levels (horizontal grouping) or across year levels (vertical grouping or composite classes). The rationale for the choice of such practices could involve the level of school enrolments (the impossibility of forming whole classes at some or all year levels), a consideration of perceived educational advantages or disadvantages to students, a consideration of administrative convenience to the school or a consideration of the attitudes of teachers to certain organizations. In any one school the final pattern may involve a mixture of such influences and constraints.

The second type of grouping relates to the extent that schools group together students of similar ability (homogeneous grouping) or group together students of mixed ability (heterogeneous grouping). Homogeneous grouping can take a number of forms. 'Streaming' by ability involves the division of students into a series of forms graded according to an assessment of students' intellectual ability. 'Setting' is a system whereby students are rearranged in ability groupings in each or in some of the subjects in the curriculum. This system is an attempt to ensure that a higher degree of homogeneity of ability in particular classes is achieved than is possible where streaming only is used. It has the same aim as streaming but is a refinement, attempting a more precise classification of students. The grouping of students in 'broad ability bands' can be regarded as a modified form of streaming. Instead of dividing, say, a six form intake into six streamed classes the intake may be divided into two or three broad bands of ability. Within the bands various structures are possible including the use of streams or 'parallel' forms, that is, unstreamed groups within the bands. In any one school it is possible that either a homogeneous or a neterogeneous system may apply but it is also possible that a mixture of the two could occur. For example setting could occur in one

or two subjects but not in others, and classes may be of mixed ability with the exception of remedial or enrichment classes. The important point is that the grouping involves a fairly permanent allocation of students, particularly when this could affect students' subject choice in later years. Even where schools do not operate a structure of streaming or setting, ability grouping could occur within the classes.

The third type of grouping to be distinguished might be termed 'compatibility' grouping which can be described as the grouping together of students to take account of personal, social and academic factors. To the extent that ability grouping is an attempt to match academic capabilities of students, it can be considered one restricted type of compatibility grouping, but the term is used here in the wider sense to incorporate personal and social considerations.

Looked at from a resource perspective, the importance of such practices centres on the extent to which constraints (for example enrolment sizes, system-level guidelines or policies) inhibit schools from adopting those practices they consider most beneficial to students and/or teachers, the extent to which certain practices involve extra or different demands upon teachers with the resulting implications for teacher training or in-service education, and the extent to which guidelines can be offered to schools to maximize the benefits from adopting, or being forced to adopt, any one practice. For example, where composite classes are used are there any benefits from the grouping of certain year levels as opposed to others, or where setting is used is there benefit in setting in certain subjects but not others? The discussion of possible benefits invariably introduces a consideration of school aims: for example to what extent schools emphasize academic pursuits over 'pastoral' or social and personal development issues.

In another sense it is possible that the grouping practices themselves lead to certain organizational responses. Where schools are grouped in year levels, what mechanisms are available for ensuring that there is some form of continuation from one year level to the next? Where students are separated into distinct 'schools' or 'houses' what mechanism is available for ensuring similarity (if this is considered desirable) in teaching from one area to the next?

The following sections take up some of these issues with a discussion of the grouping practices in the 16 schools visited. The two school sectors (primary and secondary) are treated separately here as it is considered that factors influencing the structures in each type will differ. For the purposes of the report, the 'intermediate' school is treated as a primary school in line with its New Zealand designation even though students were of an age similar to many junior secondary students in Australia.

Primary School Grouping Procedures

Composite Class Groupings Of the nine schools visited, only one operated without any composite classes. Two others had only one such class and both of these were formed as

a result of enrolment constraints in certain year levels. Of the remaining six schools two possessed an even number of composite and horizontal classes while the other had a predominance of composite classes. Ainley (1982) has described the pattern of composite groupings in Australian schools. He suggested that vertical grouping was reasonably common in primary schools in Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia and Tasmania. In general most schools had just a few composite classes and these composite classes involved two rather than several year levels. For most systems composite classes were more common in the upper years but in South Australia and Tasmania composite classes were more frequently used in Years K to 2.

The use of composite classes for educational purposes. In effect, of the eight schools operating composite classes only three had done so for 'educational' purposes as opposed to responses to enrolment constraints. One such school was Pritchard, the New Zealand intermediate school. Intermediate schools provide for just two years of education roughly equivalent to Years 6 and 7 in Australian schools. For the most part all four blocks at the school (the school was structured around four sub-schools) had decided to group together for home groups Years 6 and 7 students, although at the time the school was visited one block had decided to separate these students for a six week trial period. Notwithstanding the organizational pattern described above, students from all the blocks were grouped by year level for specialist studies in manual arts and home crafts. In addition, in the one block operating horizontal grouping, there was some cross-age grouping in mathematics while in other blocks some single year level regrouping also occurred.

The rationale for the favouring of composite groupings at Pritchard was mixed. In one sense it reflected the fact that it was only a two-year school and composite classes were considered to provide a more natural integration of students. Secondly it was felt that the combination of year levels provided greater flexibility in the forming of classes and the reforming of groups to meet students' aptitudes and interests. This flexibility was important in a school which had devolved much decision making to the individual blocks of the school leaving to them decisions about the grouping and regrouping of students.

A second school which had developed composite groupings for educational purposes was a New Zealand contributing school, Marsh. Marsh School had a varied grouping structure across its year levels. Students in Juniors 1 and 2 classes (Australian Years K and 1) were grouped together in three classes, students in Junior 2 and Standard 1 classes (Years 1 and 2) were grouped together in four classes, students in Standard 2 (Year 3) were separately grouped and students in Standards 3 and 4 (Years 4 and 5) were grouped together in six classes. This pattern reflected a mixture of educational influences and constraints. The composite groupings in the early year levels were created in response

to enrolment numbers, which were affected by the continuous enrolment policy. Staff did have some reservations and in particular felt that it was difficult to teach such groups in the first half of the year because the younger students had not matured sufficiently to benefit from integration with older students. The single year level classes at Standard 2 reflected the wishes of the senior teacher responsible for teaching at that level. The principal made the point that from his viewpoint a useful composite grouping would have been to integrate Standards 1 and 2, as it was at this stage of school life that he made key decisions about whether to promote a child or not, and he believed it was easier to hold back a child in a composite class than one in a single year class. The principal at Marsh also noted that this had been the first school at which he had been where there were composite classes in Standards 3 and 4. The system had been introduced because it was argued that it enabled more efficient co-operative planning, more efficient and easier placement of students, and more flexibility. The new principal had considered the system satisfactory as had all the teachers working in that area.

At Marsh, then, a mixture of factors had contributed towards the pattern of grouping. In New Zealand schools it was common that syndicates of teachers (groups of teachers responsible for classes in certain year levels) were formed and to an extent it would appear that this system influenced student grouping practices. At Marsh in the senior syndicate the grouping complemented the co-operative nature of the teaching in that syndicate. Elsewhere the flexibility of school organization had enabled a syndicate from one year level to be established. In this syndicate, staff felt that composites added somewhat to the insecurity of younger children, and increased the span of aptitudes and abilities that one teacher had to face.

The other school which had introduced a series of composite classes primarily for educational purposes was Mansfield, a New Zealand full primary school. The structure at this school is described in more detail in a later section in this chapter. Briefly, at this school composite groupings occurred in the senior year levels (three classes comprising students from Standards 2, 3 and 4 and three classes comprising students from Standard 4, Forms 1 and 2), whereas single year levels occurred at the junior year levels with the minor exception of the grouping of a few (six) Junior 1 students with the Junior 2 class in response to the levels of enrolment at these year levels. Although there were no composite classes in the junior year levels, staff were not opposed to the practice and it was accepted that patterns of grouping could change over time. Generally it was the view of staff at Mansfield that all classes, not only composites, contained students with a wide range of abilities and personalities, and careful selection in the grouping of students, it was felt, did not have to widen this range.

Another interesting facet of both Mansfield and Marsh Schools and a feature of all New Zealand primary schools was the treatment of new entrants to the school. In New Zealand, students are entitled to be enrolled at primary schools on the day they reach

their fifth birthday. As a result such students arrive at the school throughout the year and this requires adaptations to grouping practices. At Marsh the school had once operated a 'new entrants class' as distinct from a Junior 1 class and students proceeded to the Junior 1 class when they were considered ready. It was considered however that this procedure resulted in too much movement for new students in need of a stable beginning to their school life. The new system which operated at the time of the school visit involved each Junior 1 and 2 teacher beginning the year with about 24 students and as new entrants enrolled they were allocated to one class until that class was 'full'(approximately 30 students) and then allocated to the next class. Only when the three classes were full was a separate new entrants class started. This system was a compromise based on staff numbers: ideally staff would have liked the four classes to have all begun at the same time with a gradual build up of numbers in each but constraints in staff numbers precluded this. The system that operated at Mansfield was similar. New entrants were initially allocated to Junior 1 classes but once significant numbers had entered the school, in the third term, they formed a single class. In fact in 1979 this composite practice had continued throughout the year and it was the view of staff that the procedure had the advantage of removing the unsettling effect of a mid-year room change.

The use of composites for other purposes. Although the remaining schools which operated composite classes did so as a result of year level enrolment constraints, one school, Boldrewood, deserves special consideration. The organization of student groups at this school had two major features: students spanning a wide range of year levels were allocated to each of three units (the K-7 structure) and, within each unit, composite classes were the predominant form of grouping. Composite classes could be looked upon as an extension of the K-7 objective of encouraging interaction between students of different ages and increasing teacher awareness of the needs of students of various age levels. Such objectives were more likely to be achieved in classes containing students from more than one year level than in classes comprising single year levels. In the case of Boldrewood, however, the evidence suggested that the composite class structure was adopted not so much for the educational reasons just outlined, but rather because of the relatively small number of students at each year level. The provision of 15 class teachers for an enrolment of approximately 355 meant that, if the school was to adopt a single-teacher-single-class form of organization within each unit, the classes would average approximately 23.7 students. However there was no single year level with sufficient enrolments to enable the formation of three classes of this size from that year level alone and this was necessary if, in accordance with the K-7 philosophy, each unit was to contain students from a wide age range. Teacher views at Boldrewood on the operation of composite year classes were similar to those expressed by teachers at other schools where composite year classes operated in more conventional structures. Some of

the Boldrewood teachers welcomed the enhanced social interaction possible within a composite class, while others were concerned about the difficulties of teaching a relatively wide range of ability levels and ages within the one class. Particular concern was expressed that composite classes for Year 7 students might not facilitate their preparation for secondary school. The organization of the three Year 6/7 composites at Boldrewood reflected teacher wishes to teach at Year 7: this pattern enabled more teachers to do so. Whatever one's view on the value of composite classes, it needs however to be noted that a K-7 structure does not necessarily demand the formation of composite classes within K-7 units.

The remaining five schools visited had not initiated composite groupings for educational reasons, but rather as a response to enrolment or other constraints.

Another school which had been forced to adopt composite classes to take account of enrolment levels was considering the development of this structure in 1980 to form one large composite class (approximately 60 students) for Years 5, 6 and 7. It was hoped that this class would involve three teachers and a number of voluntary parent aides and therefore provide great flexibility in the possible teaching approaches and within class groupings. The important point that the staff made about this proposal was that they saw the necessity of forming composite classes not as a constraint but as a challenge. The proposal outlined above, it was argued, enabled the better use of the strengths of different teachers for a wide range of students and allowed greater flexibility in groupings. In the other schools, however, the view was generally less optimistic: composite classes were on the whole opposed by teachers even when they had been tried in different forms. It was felt they increased work loads for teachers, hindered an individualized approach to teaching, and created problems for students who were uncertain as to why they had been grouped with younger students.

Towards some guidelines. It is unlikely that schools whose staff are greatly opposed to the practice of composite grouping would wish to introduce it. The school visits suggested that, where composite classes were necessary, arrangements could be made to provide educational benefits perhaps not so easily obtained in single year levels, and this view was accepted at three schools to the extent that composites were formed in preference to single year levels.

The particular pattern of student grouping formed varied across schools. It is not easy to provide definitive guidelines as the aims of the groupings varied from one school to another affecting the specific mixing of year levels. However, one educational system did provide guidelines to schools on class organization. This document drew attention to factors which necessitated the formation of and contributed towards the successful operation of composite or grouped classes. In addition, a number of commonly criticized practices were listed:

- grouping older pupils of modest acadamic ability with younger pupils of high academic ability;
- selecting pupils purely by matching academic ability;
- including fewer than six students from one year level in a class with the majority from a different year level;
- keeping a child for successive years in the same composite class, the same classroom and often the same teacher; and
- inflexible organization of classes early in the school year making special placement for individual pupils during the year virtually impossible. (Western Australia. Education Department, 1980:3)

The document noted that some parents, especially of students in larger schools, consider their children's education to be in jeopardy in composite classes whereas others realize the social and academic advantages that can be gained, in particular the development of co-operative behaviour patterns and independent study skills. The document argued for structures endorsed by staff and explained to parents in order to avoid misapprehensions. It is worth noting that Mansfield School (which had incorporated a very successful composite arrangement), as well as one other school visited, had spent some time on this dissemination process, not only to parents but also to students who had expressed concern at their placement. The Education Department document (Western Australia. Education Department, 1980:2) listed a number of 'tried and proven' procedures for the establishment of effective composite classes:

- minimal streaming of pupils, in particular with respect to Years 1 and 2 where immaturity problems were apparent;
- the utilization of support teachers on a well planned basis;
- the use of vertical, or family type, grouping to structure classes for educational advantages;
- the special placement of students who may have been affected by class circumstances in previous years;
- the grouping of children with special interests and talents preferably with a teacher of similar interests and talents;
- integrated planning of teaching units to ensure cohesion and continuity in the program;
- the allocation of composite classes to experienced volunteer teachers who have demonstrated their ability to cope with such circumstances; and
- the provision of classroom facilities that will complement the educational program being developed.

The view of this education system, and one supported by the evidence of case study visits, was that the establishment of composite classes could lead to beneficial and rewarding experiences for students and teachers. The major requirements for success were noted as: thoughtful selection of students, a careful matching of teachers, an efficient management of teaching units, achievement of parent understanding, a ready acceptance by the staff of composite arrangements and the avoidance of unnecessary

changes in staff duties. The visit to schools suggested that much could be achieved by an explanation to students of the reasons for grouping especially if this is complemented by an attempt to involve students themselves in class activities through peer or cross-age tutoring. The system guidelines advocated the allocation of composite classes to experienced teachers, and the school with a high proportion of inexperienced teachers had been opposed to the use of composite classes, which suggested the view that teaching in such classes requires a certain training. However, in the school visited where placement of students had been very carefully organized, inexperienced staff had been allocated such classes and had expressed no dissatisfaction with the task.

The Use of Homogeneous and Heterogeneous Ability Groupings The use of streaming, banding or setting is generally considered to be more common in secondary schools than it is in primary schools. Ainley (1982) suggested that grouping according to perceived ability was more common in secondary than primary schools but noted a number of primary schools in New South Wales reporting grouping by ability. In the primary schools it is generally considered that ability grouping occurs more as a form of regrouping within classes. However, to a limited extent, streaming or setting did occur in most primary schools visited, either through the establishment of remedial classes, or through the relatively permanent setting of students of different abilities for certain activities, or through the manner in which composite groupings were created. Although remedial classes have been included in this report as a form of streaming, schools with remedial classes may not necessarily group other students according to ability, and the remedial classes formed may regroup for certain activities.

Educational arguments about the virtue of ability groupings are long standing. Numerous studies have addressed the issue (cf. Davies, 1975; Newbold, 1977; Western Australia. Education Department, 1978a). Although it has always been easy to document the argument against ability groupings (the difficulties of accurate placement, the sense of inferiority felt by students placed in low streams and the likelihood that such placement reinforces already existing disadvantage) or in favour of them (the greater ease of the teaching process, the greater provision of an education suited to an individual, the better intellectual interplay between the students in a class), it has been far more difficult to provide definitive research evidence on the different effects of grouping practices. At present a meta-analysis on this research is being undertaken and it is possible that this work may add to the debate. Practice in this area however is unlikely to change as a result of research findings: the background and experiences of staff, their own preconceptions and education department guidelines all affect school decisions on this issue.

Streaming. In 1980, at the time of the school visits, the most common form of ability grouping operating within the schools was a type of setting. No primary school

operated streams or bands across the whole school but a number of schools had remedial classes structured on a withdrawal basis. However, as the groups formed for these were flexible and as they did not represent a permanent separation of students from their classes, the potential problems of lowered self-esteem for students were lessened. One interesting example of an approach to the provision of such classes was the way the multicultural education teachers worked at Boldrewood School. Approximately 35 students from each of the three units were involved and each student participated in the program for a total of about two hours per week.

The general form of interaction was for the multicultural education teacher to withdraw either an individual or small group of up to 10 students from their normal class activities and to engage in intensive language development work with those students. While the teachers conceded that the openness of the design of the units created particular noise problems, in general they were reluctant to utilize the specially designed withdrawal areas because they saw as important the need for students not to become segregated from the operation of the rest of the unit. In another school, the remedial education teacher did take groups of students in the remedial education centre but, over the year, he had reduced the amount of time he put into this practice with a corresponding increase in the amount of time spent on providing advice to teachers for dealing with problems in their own class.

Setting. Many of the schools visited had some form of setting even though it was not extensive in any one school. The practice was most common for mathematics but it was also present in reading. Six of the nine schools engaged in setting, and two others, Mansfield and Franklin, had had some setting in 1979. At Franklin in 1979, students had been grouped throughout the school according to their progress in a reading scheme; but staff had decided to abandon this practice as they considered there was too much disorientation created by the changing of teaching groups and too little opportunity for follow-up into other lessons. At Mansfield in 1979 there existed a special needs program for Standards 2, 3 and 4 (Years 4, 5 and 6) where for one hour each afternoon for three weeks children were grouped according to specific needs. For example, those children requiring help with developing ideas for stories or those in need of enrichment activities were grouped together. This practice was abandoned in favour of meeting special needs in the classroom situation rather than singling out individuals in need of special attention. The different needs of students were monitored regularly by staff and curriculum development, teaching styles and student placement were all reviewed to meet these needs.

At Boldrewood where the three units of the school and the individual classes were all formed to spread abilities and aptitudes as much as possible, the only example of ability grouping occurred in the teaching of upper school mathematics. The two Year 6/7 composite classes from one unit or sub-school combined with one Year 6/7 composite

class from another unit each morning to form three ability-graded mathematics classes. At Pritchard School, in one sub-school, the associate principal who did not have a formal class allocation assisted two other teachers to form and teach three groups of students for mathematics: two large groups (one of lower ability and one of average ability) and one smaller group of high ability students for extension work. Similarly, in the same sub-school two ability groups (each containing about 17 students) for language and reading were formed at that time when half of the students in the sub-school had to attend specialist studies in manual arts and home crafts (the latter studies were organized on a year level basis but each sub-school or block at Pritchard contained students from two year levels).

At Rudd a similar practice existed with ability groupings occurring in mathematics and language arts at Year 2, in mathematics and English at Year 4, and in mathematics and spelling at Year 6. At this school, however, the procedure was facilitated because of the team teaching approach adopted at the school. At each of Years 2, 4 and 6 there were two teachers who engaged in co-operative teaching in adjacent classrooms. At Paterson District High School subject cross-grading occurred in mathematics and reading for Years 3 to 7. For example, the deputy principal who had a full class allocation would take a group for enrichment activities in mathematics at different times of the week, while at other times this group would combine with other students for mathematics.

Similarly, at Marsh school the only form of ability grouping outside of classes was the mathematics grouping which occurred at different year levels. In Standards 3 and 4 seven groups were formed, three from Standard 3, three from Standard 4 and one accelerated group from both years: in this way the original composite classes were broken down into year levels. The three groups from each year level comprised an above average, average and below average group and each received three-quarters of an hour of tuition per day. Composition of the groups did change fairly often to match attainment. Similar arrangements occurred in Standard 2 and Juniors 2 and 3. It was felt at Marsh like many other schools, both primary and secondary, that the sequential nature of mathematics lent itself to such ability groupings. As they occurred for a limited duration and as groupings were generally flexible to match differing attainments, school staff were not concerned about the potential hazards to student self-esteem that such groupings can create.

Ability groupings in composite formation. Another partial form of ability grouping that could occur in primary schools related to the formation of composite classes. It is possible for example that, where a Year 4 and Year 5 composite is formed, it is the more able Year 4 students that are grouped with their older colleagues. In the schools visited this practice occurred in three schools, while in a fourth, Mansfield, academic ability was only one of a number of considerations guiding grouping decisions. Some schools have limited capacity for variation in grouping. At Morant School with just 156 students,

for example, composites were generally structured so as to provide groups as homogeneous as possible with regard to ability. One class contained all Year 2 students with some less able Year 3 students, and another class contained most Year 3 students with some less able Year 4 students, the more capable Year 4 students being grouped with all Year 5 students. At Franklin School, although all single year level classes were heterogeneous, the composite Year 5 and 6 was structured to contain 17 students of high ability from Year 5 and seven students of average ability from Year 6.

The Use of Compatibility Groupings To a certain extent most schools took account of various social and personal factors in the grouping of students. However, this usually only involved the regrouping of classes if certain students were considered disruptive. At Boldrewood School, cognizance was taken of the social harmony of classes. In addition to the separation of students who were considered potentially disruptive to each other, students who it was felt would be mutually supportive were grouped in the one class. A similar practice occurred at Marsh School when decisions were taken about the allocation of students to the composite groupings. These groupings were not simply ability based but took account of personal and social characteristics. In the New Zealand intermediate school, it has already been noted that a sophisticated form of compatibility grouping was used to allocate students to the different blocks or units of the school. Within each of these blocks the grouping of students was the responsibility of the senior teacher and other staff but it would seem that, although the same sophisticated approach to the grouping of students in blocks would not be used, the compatibility concept would be continued into the formation of the classes.

The most interesting example of the use of compatibility groupings was that used at Mansfield School. Mansfield had an enrolment level of 216 students and took students from new entrants through to Form 2 (roughly equivalent to Year 7 in Australia). The grouping practices that operated at the school provided one example of a philosophy that could best be described as 'child-focused'. It was possible to discern at Mansfield a common educational philosophy that aimed at the involvement of students in many of the activities of the school (for example, students assisted in developing curriculum schemes and participated in a system of cross-age tutoring) and at optimizing the personal, social and academic growth of the child through careful placement with other students and with teachers. Although these grouping practices were most discernible in the senior year levels (Standard 2 through to Form 2) the possibility of such an approach applied also to junior levels. Although the system at Mansfield involved composite classes, in a larger school it might be possible to adopt such a system without mixed year levels as the number of students with different characteristics would be much greater.

The grouping of students in the senior syndicate was organized along the following lines. There were two classes comprising students from Years 3 to 5 (Standards 2, 3 and 4), both containing only a small proportion of Year 5 (Standard 4) students. One

contained a majority of Year 4 (Standard 3) students with the other a majority of Year 3 (Standard 2) students. There were also two classes comprising students from Years 5 to 7 (Standard 4 and Forms 1 and 2), both fairly evenly balanced across year levels and both with a majority of Year 6 (Form 1) students.

There was a very careful selection of students to make up these composite classes, a selection made by the principal with guidance from staff, given their special knowledge of individual students, and with some consultation with the district inspector. To form the two classes containing Years 3 to 5 (Standards 2 to 4) students, various processes had taken place. With respect to the Year 3 (Standard 2) students two groups were formed, one containing students either with confidence in themselves or alternatively with ability which had not been extended, and the other containing students who were somewhat immature and had learning difficulties because, it was felt, in the past they had not received the individual support needed. Some of these students would have had previous contact with the visiting psychologist. With respect to the Year 4 (Standard 3) students, once again two groups were formed, one containing students with some learning and personality difficulties (although this time it tended to be the more dominant personalities rather than introspective ones) and the other containing a reasonably confident group who had in the past been the recipients of a more supportive program. For this latter group it was felt that they were in need of accelerated progress. The Year 5 (Standard 4) students were split into four groups. With regard to those grouped with the younger students two groups were formed, both containing students needing relief from the pressure that had built up over previous years as a result of the effect of some very dominant children. It was considered that these students needed to develop confidence by being at the top of a class for a while. However, in one of the two groups some students were having learning difficulties. In both groups it was felt friendships had to be broken and new friendships made.

Overall, in the composite arrangement for Years 3 to 5 an attempt was made to take account of academic, personal and social factors to maximize development in all three areas. One of the groups was a 'difficult' class in many respects, but special attention was paid to this in the allocation of staff. The teacher who took over this class had in the past, at the instigation of the principal, been made aware of the work performed by the district psychologist and was in a subtle way being prepared for this particular class.

With respect to the two classes containing Years 5 to 7 (Standard 4 to Form 2) students, a similar process occurred. Two groups were formed from the Year 5 (Standard 4) students, one group containing confident students able to proceed at a fast rate and students in need of the influence of older students to extend them, and the other group containing more students who had in the past been a disruptive influence with dominant personalities, a group similar to one of the Year 4 (Standard 3) groups who were unhappy

with the way the school program had suited them and who had considered themselves failures. With regard to the two groups of Year 6 (Form 1) and Year 7 (Form 2) students, the policy was to allocate to one class a group of fast-working capable students (given a 1 or 2 rating on a 1-5 scale, a scale not based on ability alone but on teachers' perceptions of students' potential abilities) and to allocate the remainder to the other class.

Once again the policy was to maximize the academic, personal and social development of students by the careful grouping practices. Decisions were not made on objective tests, but on 'feelings' that staff had about students' abilities and potentialities. The principal accepted that as soon as a group was set up it created another set of problems and consequently the allocation process was a continuous process of re-assessment. In fact at the beginning of the year it had been necessary to move one or two children from the groups to which they had been allocated. In the early days of the system there were problems with students expressing concern about why they had, for example, been grouped with younger students. The principal, as well as explaining clearly the logic to teachers and concerned parents, visited classes to explain the policy to the students. For example the Year 5 (Standard 4) students grouped with younger children were told that they would be involved in the development of their younger colleagues in a role assisting teachers. As the practice of cross-age tutoring was current at the school both across the classes and within, and as teachers were encouraged to use students as resources, this explanation proved to be an acceptable one to students.

All teachers expressed satisfaction with the system, and although there were wide ranges of abilities and personality characteristics within classes it was felt that the careful selection had not widened this range a great deal more than would be found in single year level classes. It was noticeable that all teachers were able to report developments in the students consistent with the intended groupings. For example the Year 3 (Standard 2) students with older students had matured quickly and the Year 5 (Standard 4) students in those classes had developed leadership qualities. Even in the short visit to the school it was possible to see the way some of the previously disruptive children had been involved in the classes so as to enhance their self-image.

Secondary School Grouping Procedures

The Use of Composite Class Groupings For secondary schools it is necessary to distinguish composite groups formed for teaching purposes and those formed for 'home' or 'contact' purposes. The use of composite classes for teaching purposes in secondary schools is not a common practice (see Ainley, 1982). As is shown in Chapter 9, more common is the composite allocation of students to 'home' or 'contact' groups or to 'sub-schools' as a means of providing pastoral care or curriculum advice to students. Of

the eight schools visited, however, two did operate composite classes for teaching purposes, while two others made occasional use of such groupings for the purpose of special activities or elective classes. One example of the use of a composite class for elective study occurred at Lindsay High School where Years 11 and 12 students were occasionally grouped together for languages. The reason for this was that the electives had been offered at Year 8 and it was felt that students should be able to take the subjects through to Year 12, even though the numbers of students taking the option had so declined over the years that separate classes were not viable. The head of the department noted that the grouping was obviously not the optimum structure but that teachers were able to manage.

Two other schools operated a system that involved greater use of composites for teaching purposes. One such school was the secondary college that provided education for Years 11 and 12 only. At this school the grouping of students was dependent upon their choice of courses and units within courses. Although some units were structured on sequential lines, thereby making it less likely that Years 11 and 12 students would be grouped together, others were not so devised and therefore some units would involve students from both years. The structure at this college was interesting in that most schools attempt to provide a great degree of student choice at Years 11 and 12 but traditionally the curricula for these two years are treated separately. The structure at Kendall College offered what appeared to be a greater economy of provision by grouping together the two years. This point is expanded in Chapters 9 and 11.

The other school which operated composite groupings for teaching purposes was Lawson High School. As noted, this school was organized into three sub-schools. It was in the middle school that composite classes could exist for teaching purposes. The program for each student was constructed from a range of term-length units. Each term students studied seven units each involving four 50-minute periods per week. All units were classified into two levels of difficulty: basic or advanced. Generally Year 8 students would be enrolled in basic units, most Year 10 students would be undertaking a majority of advanced units and Year 9 students would be engaged in a mixture of the two. Composite classes of students from all three year levels were possible but composites from two adjacent year levels were more likely.

The Use of Compatibility Groupings To the extent that class groups in secondary schools are less likely to remain intact for all lessons, the scope for compatibility groupings is less than it is in primary schools. Where the home groups were also teaching groups such a possibility existed. The most extensive compatibility groupings that occurred in secondary schools was in the first year of secondary education. At this level, the schools utilized information supplied by feeder primary schools to assist in the placement of students in classes.

The Use of Homogeneous or Heterogeneous Groupings In the same way as primary schools were described, it is possible to distinguish two types of ability grouping in secondary schools: streaming and setting.

Streaming. A modified form of streaming existed in the senior years of five schools in the sense that more than one course was offered and generally this resulted in a split between the academic and less academic students. The split in courses was often between those leading to matriculation and those leading to school certificated courses. Another limited form of streaming that existed was the use of remedial or gifted classes to separate the less able or highly able students. In Lawson for example there was a small remedial English class of five students and a special unit for gifted children containing 13 children. At Dennis Technical School a remedial education centre was staffed by two remedial teachers who worked with small groups of students on a withdrawal basis. This school also had a migrant education centre operating in a similar fashion.

Only one school operated a comprehensive system of streaming, while two others had a structure that resulted in streaming at one year level, Year 10. The first school, Brennan, was located in an educational system where ability grouping was a well-established practice (see Ainley, 1982), and at the school there was general acceptance of the view that to develop students to the limit of their cognitive potential it was necessary to group students by ability levels. Tests of learning ability were administered to Year 6 primary students and on this basis classes of differing ability were formed for the first year of secondary education. A rigorous assessment monitored student progress from their enrolment in Year 7, and these assessments guided the formation of ability classes in most subjects through to Year 10.

In addition, in Years 7, 8 and 9 some students were allocated to 'general activity' classes where the curriculum differed somewhat, especially in Years 8 and 9. The general activity classes comprised students who were most likely, in the school's view, to experience severe learning difficulties. For Year 7 students this view was mainly formed from primary school records and the tests administered to Year 6 students. The Years 8 and 9 general activity classes were formed largely on the basis of school performance in the preceding year. The major rationale for the formation of general activity groups was the need to provide such students with the kind of intensive teaching and support which would be difficult to provide in a conventional class. To this end the general activity classes were generally slightly smaller; the classes remained together for almost all of the teaching week; and the curriculum combined a high proportion of basic numeracy and literacy development subjects with a relatively low proportion of more academic subjects.

The philosophy behind the establishment of the general activity classes was also apparent in the formation of other classes at Years 7 to 10. As noted, each class at

these levels was grouped on an assessment of academic learning ability, with the only exceptions being where the regular classes dissolved and reformed for some of the elective subjects. Although this structure was traditional and widespread in the education system in which Brennan was located, it was also contended at the school that the arguments for ability grouping gained an additional validity when applied to a student population of the type enrolled at Brennan. It was argued that the only way in which the school could reasonably respond to varied learning needs of the high proportion of students with language and other learning difficulties was by the formation of ability groups, of which the general activity classes were the most obvious cases. It was also argued that students preferred such a structure. While all classes essentially followed the same curriculum in the core subjects, those in the higher ability groups engaged in a greater range of enrichment activities.

At Richardson School, there had been some recent changes to the structure following the appointment of a new principal and following the results of a co-operative evaluation exercise at the school. In 1979 a course system was in operation which had led to specialization and thereby a subtle form of streaming in Years 8, 9 and 10. The new system ensured that in Years 8 and 9 heterogeneous classes were formed: in Year 10, however, streaming did still operate based on Year 9 ratings. The teachers of mathematics had expressed concern that this new system did not adequately cater for advanced Year 9 students and as a result some advanced teaching was prepared within classes for these students. Similarly, at Dennis Technical School, although there was no ability grouping in Years 7, 8 or 9, the organization of the Year 10 timetable was complicated by the operation of ability grouping in mathematics. Following Year 9 tests, three groups were organized to study three mathematics courses which were timetabled such that they were held at the same time. The effect of this was to provide three different courses of core offerings.

Setting. A more common practice in the schools visited was the practice of subject setting and this was especially common with mathematics. At Paterson District High School, located in a system where grouping by ability is fairly common in some year levels (see Ainley, 1982), in 1979 mathematics had been taught in heterogeneous groups. The mathematics teacher, however, was unhappy with this arrangement and in 1980 setting was introduced. Four levels were taught one of which (the basic group) was taught separately in a smaller class. In district high schools the extent to which separate ability groupings could be formed across classes was limited by the small numbers of teaching staff. At Paterson four teachers were involved in the teaching of mathematics even though only one such teacher was formally allocated to the school. This had been achieved by the willingness of staff in such a school to teach outside their speciality. Nevertheless the grouping of students was still limited and within class ability grouping was necessitated.

Lindsay High School, part of the same system as Paterson, also had a policy of setting. The policy of the mathematics faculty of grading the primary school intake continued in Years 9 and 10 where four ability groups were formed on the basis of assessment each year. This grouping reflected the availability of four textbooks catering for different levels and as a result schools were encouraged to 'set'. Although the science faculty did not itself set, it did use very largely the same groups as those devised by the mathematics faculty for their Years 9 and 10 groups of advanced science and science (in Year 8 science classes were ungraded). In English and social studies the grouping practices had undergone various changes over the years. The system at the time of the visit involved heterogeneous groupings for Year 8 students while in Year 9 in each of the three sub-schools there was one advanced group and two other groups of intermediate and basic students mixed together. For Year 10 there was an advanced group of students taken from across the three sub-schools, and then within each sub-school there was one group of mixed advanced/intermediate students and the other groups were mixed intermediate/basic students. In 1981, Year 8 heterogeneous classes were to be continued into Year 9 in each sub-school and changes were planned for Year 10 although setting would continue. The system of ability grouping and sub-school organization at this school had created certain conflicts, however. These conflicts related to the balance between a welfare approach adopted by the school as expounded by the sub-school structure, and an academic emphesis as exemplified in the faculty desires for ability grouping. At Lindsay these conflicts were unresolved and are discussed in more detail in Chapter 9 concerned with the school program.

The other schools did not operate any ability grouping in subjects, but at Palmer the mathematics faculty was considering this for 1981 in the main school but not in the smaller Mixed Faculty School. At both Lawson and Kendall it was the unit and course system, with the establishment of units of differing degrees of difficulty, that determined the extent to which ability groups formed and not any general ability testing or direction from staff. Students opted for different units and the less able or younger students were more likely to take the less advanced units.

Summary

The previous sections have described the ways in which students were grouped together for teaching purposes in the 16 schools visited. It is perhaps worthwhile to draw together some points from this discussion.

Secondary schools have been fairly traditional in their approach to composite student groupings. In part this may reflect the guidelines that education departments provide or have in the past provided, and in part it reflects the training and experience of secondary teachers who unlike many of their primary colleagues have not had to think in terms of composite groupings. The evidence from the case study visits indicates that

there is a lot that schools can do in this area. There is scope to develop curriculum structures that enable the grouping of year levels. The senior college structures suggest how this can be done at Years 11 and 12 and, despite the restrictions of external examination requirements, other schools in Australia and New Zealand might find guidelines here for the better use of their resources. At Lawson School it was shown how a similar structure could be used in the intermediate year levels. The traditional opposition to such approaches suggests that secondary education is a sequential process that is best met with a grouping of students that is compatible with their intellectual development. However, the structures developed at Lawson and Kendall do not deny this approach; rather, through the development of a number of units of varying difficulty, they enable a matching of the intellectual potentialities of students to the units or courses offered. In effect the system provides for individualized instruction through the careful selection of units for particular students. The main issue here is one of matching topics to students and if this process can be achieved successfully (and at Lawson the evidence was positive) there is no reason why mixed year levels should not be considered.

With respect to ability groupings in secondary schools, the practices in the different schools tended to reflect the system in which the school was located. In one system, for example, the structure of the external Achievement Certificates at the end of Year 10 seemed to lead to the belief that classes should be streamed according to ability levels. Curriculum materials developed by some education departments also encouraged ability level grouping. However, over the years, even in the more traditional systems, heterogeneous classes have become more common. It is not the place of this report to assess the arguments concerning different practices. Rather, it was intended to describe different practices that had been adopted to meet certain needs, and the potential problems of these practices. For example, at Lindsay School where a conflict between ability grouping and sub-school organization existed (the four groups of mathematics ability could not operate in each sub-school as numbers were too small), the need to ensure that the expectations of staff are not contradictory to school aims and philosophy was indicated. In systems not accustomed to heterogeneous teaching, pre-service and in-service training need to be structured accordingly if, as the evidence indicates, the practice of heterogeneous grouping is becoming more common (Western Australia, Education Department, 1978a).

In almost all schools visited regardless of the traditions of the educational system there had been a type of ability grouping introduced into mathematics teaching. It would seem that teachers consider there is something in the nature of mathematics that best suits ability grouping. The adaptations made varied from a strict policy of setting to providing extension or remedial activities within classes.

Teachers will often vary in their views on the desirability of ability grouping: principals who wish to introduce systems that preclude or encourage such practices must

be aware of this and be prepared to accept dissatisfaction from some staff or offer support to some staff in teaching mixed groups. More likely is that principals will adapt to staff wishes and the examples described above show some such adaptations.

In the primary schools visited, although, not surprisingly, composite groupings were more common, few of the schools had adopted such a system for educational reasons. Rather, these structures had resulted from staffing constraints. The evidence from the case study visits was that with careful selection of students to classes much could be achieved in creating an environment that maximized the potentialities for growth of the different aptitudes of students. The example of Mansfield School's use of compatibility groupings was presented to show this. Compatibility groupings of the sort described at Mansfield did not necessitate composite arrangements but in smaller schools this would be more likely. In any case in the way the system was used at Mansfield the age differences were important: older students were, for example, encouraged to assist their younger colleagues. There would seem to be considerable scope for schools to rethink their allocation practices. At Mansfield it seemed that this could be done without necessitating teachers to modify their teaching styles. Indeed, the Mansfield system was built upon a diversity of teaching styles and teacher characteristics and sought to capitalize upon this diversity by the careful matching of students and teachers.

Although ability grouping across classes in primary schools was not extensive, there was more diversity and fluidity in grouping practices than anticipated. Interestingly many of the primary schools visited had adopted a setting system in particular for mathematics, and on occasions for reading. This policy had implications for school organization and it was noticeable that the practice seemed most easily achieved where either pairs of teachers or teams of teachers worked in close co-operation or where senior teachers who were predominantly non-teaching personnel could become involved in teaching.

The Allocation of Teachers to Classes

It is possible to distinguish four broad types of teacher allocation processes in primary and secondary schools:

- the extent to which teachers specialize in teaching certain year levels;
- the extent to which teachers specialize in teaching certain subject areas;
- the extent to which teacher attributes are matched to either student attributes or the attributes of the other teachers with whom they share teaching duties; and
- the extent to which teachers teach in teams or pairs of teachers.

The last distinction, the extent to which teachers teach in teams or pairs, has been referred to as team teaching. In this section this is taken to have a specific meaning,

that is, a form of teaching organization in which two or more teachers have the responsibility, working together, for all the teaching of a given group of pupils in some specified area of the curriculum. This may involve the division of students into different groups for different lengths of time or the bringing together of one large group for instruction with all teachers present. The definition is not intended to cover the use of teams, syndicates or faculties merely to provide support and guidance for each other in, for example, the development of units or the development of teaching styles. Rather, it involves a sharing of teaching responsibility. Lovell (1967) has noted:

> It must not be thought, however, that team teaching is alone in the claim to provide flexible groupings of pupils; a more traditional organization can do this to some extent. Nor must it be thought that because team teaching provides opportunities for independent study, and for large and small class teaching, it automatically assures better teaching or better pupil learning. It is only a form of organization and in itself it guarantees nothing in respect of teacher or pupil performance. It is the extent to which teachers and pupils make use of the flexible groupings that is important. (Lovell, 1967:5-6)

The use of teams of teachers in a wider sense, to include the different duties assigned to teachers in addition to class teaching and how this relates to the organization of teams or syndicates, is examined in the following chapter. This wider sense of the term is generally included as team teaching in educational literature:

> While team teaching certainly involves much team organization and planning the actual teaching is usually, but not always, done by a single teacher at a particular time with a particular group. But occasionally two teachers may jointly take a large class instruction period while other teachers may be observers. Large class instruction periods are often assumed to be an integral part of a team teaching organization since it avoids unnecessary duplication of different teachers and thus saves time, while it also enables abler teachers to influence larger numbers of pupils. (Lovell, 1967:6)

The underlying rationale behind team teaching in its more general sense has been described by Warwick (1971). There is no evidence from research that student achievement is affected one way or the other by the team teaching approach. An adequate research design to address this issue would be difficult to develop. In addition, in its wider meaning it is doubtful that measuring student achievement is sufficient to evaluate the varied aims of the approach.

Teacher Allocation in Primary Schools

Year Level Allocation In most of the primary schools visited the allocation of teachers to classes at different year levels was based as far as possible on teacher preferences. At Boldrewood, in 1980, this had been taken to the extent that since four teachers wished to teach Year 7 classes, but enrolments at that year level would not permit the formation of four classes (there were 63 Year 7 students), a compromise had been reached which resulted in the formation of four composite Year 6/7 classes spread across

the three units of the school. At Marsh School the only exception to the policy of allocation according to teacher wishes was that the principal felt that male teachers were better placed in the senior area of the school. At this school, 90 per cent of the general class teachers were female and as a result the composite class arrangements in the senior school allowed the male teachers to influence a wider range of students. This was however a minor consideration in deciding upon such composite classes. The principal at Marsh also felt that after three or four years at one year level teachers should experience teaching at other year levels. At Paterson District High School, this view was also held with the exception that the deputy principal invariably taught at Year 7 as it was felt these students were more able to work effectively with less teacher supervision on the occasions when the deputy was required to attend to administrative matters. At other schools the only exception to meeting teacher wishes was the allocation of trained infant or kindergarten teachers to those grades, either to meet departmental requirements or to take account of their special training. By contrast, at Mansfield, the principal's policy was that, although attempts would be made to allocate teachers to the classes they desired, the prime consideration was the development of students' potentialities and this required a careful matching of teachers' attributes to the characteristics of classes.

In each school, there were occasions when teachers were requested to teach at grades they did not wish. Generally it was the 'new' teachers who had least say in the allocation process. In the schools visited problems of meeting teacher preferences as to year levels were rarely encountered, but in a few schools there was a problem of too few teachers wishing to take the very junior grades.

Subject Level Specialization Subject level specialization is generally not thought of as an issue in primary schools. Primary teachers are expected to be generalist teachers teaching all topics. In recent years, however, primary schools have been allocated more specialist staff, for example, music, art, craft, and physical education teachers. Where this has occurred the role of the general class teacher has tended to change somewhat although teachers may still engage in specialist activities even where specialist staff are available. In fact at Clarke School, which had over 1000 students, all specialist staff worked on the assumption that class teachers would conduct follow-up lessons with their students, since because of the school size it would not have been possible for the specialist teachers alone to provide a comprehensive specialist teaching program for all students.

Where schools are without specialist staff it is possible that they may make use of the expertise of different teachers to provide across the school teaching as opposed to leaving such teaching to each class teacher. Of the schools visited this practice occurred to some extent in four schools. At Paterson District High School the pre-school teacher was formally also the school music specialist (the pre-school was conducted on a

half-day basis) and, in addition, she was involved in art work for Years 1-3 (as well as reading and mathematics at other year levels). At Marsh School, with the reduction of staff in 1980 the school no longer had specialist subject teachers. As a result, use was made of the specialist knowledge of different teachers: for example, in the senior school, teachers would take units in their specialities and in the junior area one teacher took junior students for music lessons. Also in the junior area on occasions teachers were enabled to take units of a speciality. At Boldrewood, the only subject area specialists in 1980 were the teacher librarian, the part-time Greek language teacher and the part-time visiting ballet teacher. Generally, each teacher was responsible for other activities but in some cases one or two class teachers would take a specialist activity such as physical education or music for a large number of students from within or across units. At Rudd Primary School one teacher appointed as a general class teacher took responsibility for physical education, music, health and folk dancing so that she became a specialist in these areas.

Matching of Teachers with Students and with Other Teachers In all but one of the schools visited some form of matching took place. It was however more common for teachers to be matched with other teachers than for a matching of teachers with students to occur, except in the sense that teacher preferences for year levels were often taken into account.

In the case of matching teachers with other teachers this occurred either at a sub-school level or at a classroom level where two teachers were paired together for co-operative teaching purposes. At Boldrewood, the allocation of teachers to units was determined largely by teacher preferences. A great deal of weight was placed upon the need to have each unit staffed by teachers who were likely to work harmoniously together, a consideration of importance where teachers have to work adjacent to each other in large open-space areas such as at Boldrewood. There was, however, some evidence that the three units became a little isolated from each other and the cohesion of each unit through the allocation process may have contributed towards this. At Pritchard, which was also structured around units or blocks, no attempt was made to group together people who were pre-judged to be personally compatible. Rather an emphasis was placed on creating harmonious organizational climates and each team was evenly balanced in its distribution of teaching experience. Each year the proposed allocation of staff to teams was discussed with all staff to ensure that high levels of commitment and satisfaction existed.

At Franklin, Clarke and Rudd Schools, all of which operated systems of paired teachers either in adjacent single-teacher spaces or in open spaces, the importance of the compatibility of the teachers involved was stressed. At Clarke School most teachers expressed the opinion that teaching in open spaces was primarily only problematic to the extent that there were incompatibilities between staff. Occasionally at this school and

elsewhere, experienced and inexperienced staff had been paired together to create a training role: effective co-operation was however the main consideration.

There was little evidence of matching of teachers with students. At one school the most experienced staff member had been allocated the only composite class on the assumption that this was more difficult to teach. At Paterson District High School for 1981 thought was being given to the placing of an inexperienced teacher in a particular class. Two classes were available, one with fewer students but a class believed to be difficult: a decision was being made on the relative advantages of small size and the disadvantages of the student attributes. At Marsh School children with special needs or skills were placed with teachers considered best able to exploit skills or assist needs.

The only really intensive attempt to match teachers with students occurred at Mansfield School which had the most innovative structure for the grouping of students along compatibility lines. The allocative decisions were made by the principal, and in brief the intention was to achieve the best combination of students and teachers. In the junior area the senior teacher would be consulted in the allocation process. In general the principal commented that attempts would be made to satisfy the wishes of teachers for particular classes, but the prime consideration was to maximize benefits to students. As an example of this process the teacher who took the Years 3 to 5 class containing students with some behavioural problems and learning difficulties had, in the past, at the instigation of the principal, been made aware of the work performed by the visiting psychologist, and was in effect being prepared for this particular class. On the other hand, the teacher allocated the less difficult class had previously worked only part-time, and it was felt that this teacher would develop more quickly within the context of a more secure grouping. The principal accepted a role to act as a resource and guidance teacher to staff and this had been done with any member of staff in need of such attention. The principal had also been prepared to teach a good deal if it was felt that the exchange of teaching duties for administrative duties was suitable for other staff members and was to the benefit of the students.

Co-operative Teaching Only one of the schools visited did not engage in some form of paired or co-operative teaching. The extent of such teaching, however, varied from one school to the next, and there was several interesting examples of the approach.

Marsh. At Marsh one of the interesting features of the school was the system of co-operative or team teaching that existed in the senior area of the school (especially in Standards 3 and 4 or Years 4 and 5). This did not take the form of team teaching in the sense of more than one teacher being in a class, but rather involved the co-operative development of units and the movement of classes or students to a number of different teachers to study aspects of those units or to study specialist subjects such as art or music. In this way students were being prepared for the sort of teaching situation they

were likely to encounter at intermediate and secondary schools. An example of how this process operated was the 'Israel' unit. Each of six teachers had responsibility for one aspect of the study of Israel (art, geography, history, etc.) and each aspect was studied for four weeks and evaluated before the next aspect began. Students experienced all six teachers by the end of the unit. A teacher was responsible for preparing only one four-week block and not the whole unit.

The school established the following objectives of co-operative teaching for the senior area:

- to enable students and teachers to develop creativity, adaptability, independence, responsibility and habits of enquiry;
- to use better the talents and interests of teachers;
- to provide teachers with a vehicle for the exchange of ideas and the co-operative planning of units;
- to provide children with more varied group experiences; and
- to enable the whole program through its flexibility to fit in better with the use of facilities.

In the same document were listed perceived advantages and disadvantages experienced through the use of co-operative teaching. Among the advantages listed were:

- less planning for individual teachers;
- better use of specific teacher strengths;
- better sharing of professional ideas;
- greater possibility of covering areas of work in depth;
- greater variation for teachers and students;
- greater opportunity for guidance for new teachers;
- more flexible use of facilities and space; and
- more sense of belonging through interaction in small teams.

Among the disadvantages documented were:

- more children for each teacher to get to know;
- more movement about the school; and
- greater difficulties in following up a set of activities.

In the junior area, although co-operative teaching did not take place so much in the form of movement from one class to the next, the syndicates for the area did a lot of joint planning of units and worked closely together as teams. It was generally felt that too much movement of teachers and students at the junior levels was not desirable.

Pritchard. At Pritchard, another New Zealand school, the system was a little different with less movement from one teacher to another. In general the four blocks or sub-schools would be best regarded as integrated groups of students taught by a co-operative team of teachers in which students worked on individually assigned tasks

Table 6.2 Organization of Classes at Rudd Primary School, 1980

Year level	Number of students	Number of teachers	Comments
K	33	1	. Single class
1	62	2	. Co-operative teaching in adjacent classrooms
2	57	2	. Team teaching in an open area
3	66	2	. Separate classes with limited co-operative programming
4	72	2	. Co-operative teaching in adjacent classrooms
3/4	(9/14)	1	. One separate composite Year 3/4 class
5	53	2	. Co-operative teaching in adjacent classrooms
6	63	2	. Co-operative teaching in adjacent classrooms

from a plan developed by the team of teachers. In planning a new unit, there appeared to be fairly extensive use of co-operative teaching. In some instances where one team member had special expertise, that person would take responsibility for preparing a first draft of a unit, revising it after discussion and then acting as a resource teacher for the other members of the team. A few cases might involve the person with particular expertise acting as a teacher for that unit with the other staff filling a subsidiary role. In other cases where more general skills were involved, different parts of a unit would be developed by different team members and be integrated at one of the planning meetings. During the visit it appeared that each of these styles of development had been used as appropriate to the unit and the resources of the team. It was not possible to identify one as the predominant mode of unit development. In some of the teams there was some use of specialized teaching (through which one teacher might teach one unit) but generally most of the teachers acted as generalists with perhaps one teacher acting as a resource specialist in a given area.

Rudd. The organization at Rudd School was structured so as to provide for co-operative teaching at each year level and also to avoid composite classes. The pattern of organization in operation in October 1980 has been summarized in Table 6.2. It can be seen that the predominant pattern was that of co-operative teaching between pairs of teachers at each year level. The following three examples illustrate some ways in which the co-operative teaching arrangements operated within year levels.

At Year 2 there were two teachers operating in one open-space area. For most of the curriculum they operated as one big class with two teachers working jointly in supervising students' work and occasionally providing direct teaching. In this mode of operation the teachers took turns in planning and leading the class. For language arts and mathematics, use was made of an extra teacher (who would normally have provided non-contact time) so that groups based on ability could be formed and more individual tuition could be provided. Because the groups were not set classes there was some fluidity in the structure of the groups over the course of the year. As part of the mode of operation there was considerable individual and independent work by students. Each week there was a 'target day' at which progress would be monitored. Targets for each subject area would be specified, materials prepared, students' progress assessed and parents would be involved in helping in the assessment process and on some occasions the teacher aide would also be involved.

At Year 4 there were basically two home groups. For each there was a teacher assigned so that students knew who was their class teacher. However, for mathematics and English, different ability groups were formed with one teacher taking the higher ability group in mathematics and the lower ability group in English and vice versa. In other subject areas teaching was conducted in home groups but with shared preparation of materials and liaison concerning strategies. The most extensive shared planning was in English and mathematics where one teacher took responsibility for programming in English and the other in mathematics. The fluidity which was possible under these arrangements was indicated in the third term of 1980 when the home groups were restructured so that a group of 18 students who had been the source of behaviour problems were separated in one home group.

In Year 6 the two teachers responsible were both senior teachers but because of the way in which non-contact time was organized a total of four teachers were involved with this year level. As a result, careful timetabling was required together with rather more structured preparation. There was less teaching in home groups at this level though there were two home groups formed (mainly for social but also for teaching purposes). The morning was the prime teaching time and mainly comprised language and mathematics teaching. In these areas ability groups were formed with one teacher taking the higher ability group for mathematics and the lower ability group for spelling and vice versa. In reading four ability groups were organized with teachers moving between the groups. For natural science, social science, music and physical education various arrangements involving the two main teachers and the assistant principals were employed.

Other schools. At both Boldrewood and Clarke, where there were open spaces which one might have expected to encourage team teaching, the practice was not very

widespread. At Clarke some teachers had partitioned the open areas to create quasi-conventional classrooms but others worked more closely together taking, for example, different sized groups from within the one large group. In fact, two teachers now teaching in conventional areas still participated in some joint class ventures exchanging mathematics and reading groups. At Boldrewood, in the main, general class teachers remained for all the teaching week with the class to which they were allocated. The major exceptions to this were the occasions when two or more teachers within a sub-school or unit would, for the purpose of arranging time for preparation and correction duties, teach one another's class in certain activities for a relatively short period each week. Few instances existed of general class teachers being involved in taking classes from outside their own unit. At Morant School the practice of co-operative teaching was also very limited. The classes in Year K and Year 1 were kept as single year level classes and in these two classes there was a limited amount of team teaching for special activities but in the main the classes were taught separately. At other levels of the school, co-operative teaching did not exist.

At Mansfield School, despite the single-teacher spaces, it was very noticeable that there was still considerable movement between classes, either of students or teachers, in what might be called an informal team-teaching situation. Examples would be drama classes combining Year 7 and Year 2 students, and the use of other classes as audiences for plays. The two teachers of the most senior classes had combined to produce a handwriting scheme and were planning to do so again for a reading scheme, and the two other senior syndicate teachers also shared resources (charts, books, etc.) as well as occasionally exchanging students in mathematics. Most teachers expressed a preference for this informal system, in particular the advantages of enabling students to become accustomed to more than one teacher.

At Franklin School, the extent of co-operative teaching varied from one part of the school to another. The classes in Years 1 and 2 were organized so that pairs of Year 1 and Year 2 classes shared each of the three double teaching spaces available for these classes. In those groupings there was some joint teaching in movement, story-telling, science and social science on a common theme but 'formal' subjects were taken in separate year level groups. There was also some more extended co-operative teaching across the whole of the infant section (except the kindergarten area). The design of the teaching areas in the infant section ideally suited these arrangements. In the upper primary section of the school there was one large triple teaching space which was used for the three Year 3 classes. The three teachers of those classes in 1980 were new to the school. They had begun the year by teaching their classes entirely separately, but over the course of the year had developed some co-operative and shared teaching arrangements. Even without making extensive use of the open plan arrangements they had developed and used the area for mutual support and shared materials in preparation.

At Year 5 level the two classes were housed in adjacent rooms with a common entrance area. In these classes there was limited co-operative teaching. Generally throughout the school there were several areas suited to either team teaching or co-operative teaching but staff in Years 3 to 6 mostly preferred to teach single-teacher class groups. It was argued by these teachers that with this system they were better able to develop close relationships between teachers and students.

Teacher Allocation in Secondary Schools

Year Level Allocation In general, secondary schools visited did not adopt a sophisticated policy of matching certain teachers with certain year levels. In the smaller schools this practice would not have been viable even if desired. However, in most schools visited it was usual for the more experienced teachers to take more of the senior classes of the school (see Ainley, 1982). At Richardson School as much as 80 per cent of the teaching time of the senior staff was allocated to Years 11 and 12. Although this sort of distribution of teaching time was not so marked in the other schools the practice was similar.

It appeared, also, that even where sub-schools operated catering for specific year levels teachers would not teach exclusively within the sub-schools. At Lindsay School with the Years 8, 9 and 10 sub-schools it was generally accepted that teachers should also teach at Years 11 and 12. At Lawson the original ideal of the lower sub-school catering for Year 7 students was to have this junior school as a discrete small unit staffed by teachers who chose to work almost exclusively in this area. This policy had been modified: there were still some staff who taught mainly in this area but as many preferred a greater variety the staffing of the sub-school was not entirely discrete. The policy of attempting to get a stable staff at the junior school so as to introduce students with a primary school tradition gradually into secondary schooling was also adopted at Dennis Technical School. Here, without direction, a stable core of teachers had chosen to teach at this year level. It appeared that in the past this school had allocated the more experienced staff to Year 7 but this practice had ceased.

Subject Level Specialization In general, at secondary schools, teachers taught the specialities they had been trained to teach. Where this varied it was usually a result of resource constraints (for example, the need to supply a varied curriculum at a small school) or as a result of a specific policy to adopt an integrated studies program.

In the schools visited some cross speciality teaching occurred in a few schools as a result of resource constraints. This was most noticeable at the small district high school with only 74 secondary enrolments. The school had been allocated four full-time teachers and two part-time teachers qualified in the areas of social sciences, science, manual arts, home economics, business studies and art and craft. System-level resource allocation policies to such schools required that the science or mathematics teacher also

taught mathematics or science, and the English or social science teacher also taught social science or English. At Paterson four teachers had been involved in the teaching of mathematics and three in the teaching of English. All staff at Paterson appeared prepared to teach subjects outside of their speciality. For example the home economics specialist had in the past taught mathematics and the social studies specialist in 1980 taught social studies, English and motor mechanics.

Cross speciality teaching that might result from an integrated approach to teaching was rarely encountered in the six schools visited. At Brennan High School, where 63 per cent of the students were born outside of Australia, an important part of the school philosophy was the role perceived for the whole of the teaching staff in overcoming language difficulties. Even though specialist language teachers were available on the staff it was school policy to develop, through in-service days and other activities, an awareness amongst all staff of the responsibilities of teachers in a multicultural school and to encourage staff to integrate language development into their everyday teaching program. A key school policy statement was 'every teacher is a language teacher'.

Matching of Teachers with Groups of Students In the secondary schools visited teacher allocation to classes was largely determined by subject choice and teacher specialities. At Dennis Technical School, as part of the 'welfare' arrangements made for Year 7 students, the form teachers were chosen from the humanities and mathematics areas as those teachers would spend the largest proportion of time with the students. At other schools it would not be uncommon for special provision to be made for inexperienced teachers either through a reduced teaching load or through allocation to the less difficult classes. At Palmer High School there was, by default rather than by directive, some matching of students with staff in the smaller Mixed Faculty School. This occurred because students and teachers were aware of the philosophy and teaching styles expounded in the school and were able to opt to go there. At Kendall College which had a term-length unit approach to teaching, an important principle which was followed in organizing classes was to enable teachers to follow through for a whole year (or if possible two years) a class taken at the beginning of the year. In this way it was expected that greater continuity and teacher-student rapport would be developed.

Co-operative Teaching Although departments or faculties were very important in curriculum development and teacher guidance, the type of co-operative teaching that occurred in a number of the primary schools generally did not occur in secondary schools.

At Paterson, because of the limited number of staff available, groups of teachers were responsible for the teaching of the same subject to the same students. In mathematics this involved the separate grouping of classes into ability groups taught by different teachers. The sharing of subject teaching, essential in schools so small, did

require that teachers consulted regularly with each other for co-ordination and guidance. At Lindsay, as a result of a timetabling situation where two Year 12 economics classes had been placed at the same time, a system of team teaching (involving lectures and tutorials) had been used. With the change of the timetable, in 1981, this structure was unlikely to proceed and the single-teacher space design of the school did not encourage its continuation. At Palmer School where the design allowed flexible teaching spaces, generally the teaching was still organized along single teacher to single classes rather that on a paired or co-operative basis.

The only fairly common example of a type of co-operative teaching would be where remedial staff, in addition to working with withdrawal groups, worked in some classrooms with other teachers.

Summary

This final section has sought to describe some of the practices, in the 16 schools, regarding the way in which teachers were allocated to classes. In the primary sector the common and varied use of co-operative teaching techniques in several of the schools visited was generally very well regarded. The opportunity for such an approach is limited in smaller schools and in the less open design schools. However, it was not very common for this practice to occur at the secondary level: faculties provided teacher guidance and curriculum development facilities, but generally teachers would not share teaching responsibilities apart from those few instances where a more co-ordinated or integrated approach to teaching had developed. In secondary schools, the diversity of offerings seemed to make such a co-operative approach more difficult and the separate faculties which provided the specialist advice to teachers in some ways militated against a more integrated approach.

An interesting development in the primary schools, and one that is discussed more fully in Chapter 9, is the extent to which teachers specialize in teaching certain themes or subjects as opposed to being generalists. A few primary schools had made interesting use of their resources in this way. In the secondary schools, such speciality was expected but in the small district high school the adeptability of young staff to teach varied subjects was noteworthy. The principal of one large secondary school felt in fact that such diversity not only benefited teachers by widening their experience but also benefited students as they had a more intensive contact with a smaller group of teachers.

CHAPTER 7

THE ALLOCATION OF TEACHER TIME

An important aspect of any study of resource allocation is the way in which the available time of teaching staff is distributed among various functions of schools. For the present study a classification has been used in which the functions performed by teaching staff in the primary and secondary schools visited were grouped broadly into three categories. First would be 'class teaching' which would be represented by the time during which teachers are in class with groups of students. Second would be 'class related management' which would include those functions directly related to class teaching and involve a variety of preparation and correction activities, conducted outside the classroom, which are provided for by non-contact time at school. Third would be 'school management functions' which would include various executive and administrative tasks as well as the provision of guidance and counselling to students.

This chapter is concerned therefore with one of the six sets of issues guiding the methodology, that is aspects of teacher contact time. Included in this discussion is the issue of the balance between class sizes and teacher contact time, and the allocation structures aimed at creating classes of different sizes.

Some Theoretical Issues

One of the fundamental resource deployment issues that schools face is the question of class size. Should additional staff be used to lower average class sizes or perhaps in other teacher support methods? Should schools encourage teachers to have available less non-contact time, with the consequent loss of preparation time involved, so as to keep class sizes low? In practice, the responses to these issues are strongly influenced by guidelines proposed by teacher unions, by decisions taken in the context of school circumstances, and by education department policies. There has not been a shortage of research conducted into the issue of class size, but as recently as 1978 the Porwell Report in the United States was forced to comment:

> Research findings on class size to this point document repeatedly that the relationship between student achievement and class size is highly complex.
>
> There is general consensus that the research findings on the effects of class size on student achievement across all grades are contradictory and inconclusive. (Porwell, 1978:68-69)

However, more recently the work conducted by Glass and Smith has added to this debate. The authors conducted two separate studies: one a study of the relationship of class size and achievement (Glass and Smith, 1978) and the other a study of the relationship of class size to classroom processes, teacher satisfaction and student

affective outcomes (Smith and Glass, 1979). In the first of these projects the authors collected data from 77 studies which had examined the relationship between class size and achievement. These studies yielded 725 comparisons of the achievement of smaller and larger classes based on data from nearly 900,000 students of all ages and aptitudes studying in all manner of school subjects. Using the technique of meta-analysis, these comparisons were integrated into a single curve showing the relationship between class size and student learning. It was found that only one factor substantially affected the curve, namely whether the original study controlled adequately (in the experimental sense) for initial differences among students and teachers in smaller and larger classes. As a result the conclusions from the study were based on nearly 100 comparisons of achievement from well-controlled studies.

The results of this study are best seen from Figure 7.1 (from Glass and Smith, 1978) which shows the relative gains or losses (expressed in percentile ranks in achievement) which students experience from being taught in classes of different sizes. In summary, the major benefits from reduced class size are obtained as size is reduced below about 20 students, but overall as class size increases, achievement decreases. A student, who would score at just above the 80th percentile on a national test when taught individually, would score at about the 50th percentile when taught in a class of 40 students.

The literature reviewed by Glass and Smith involved a number of studies of different subjects, although almost 50 per cent of the studies involved primary school classes in which all subjects were combined. In the case of secondary schools, studies of reading, mathematics, language, psychology, science, and social science were included. Similarly, a great range in instructional hours was evident in the studies, from 1-10 hours in 26 of the comparisons to 9,000 hours in five of the comparisons. Regression analyses were performed for many smaller portions of the entire data set in an attempt to determine which characteristics of the studies might mediate the extent of the class size and achievement relationship. No differences were found with respect to such factors as subjects taught, duration of instruction, student ability or type of achievement measure, but one relationship which did stand out was level of schooling (primary against secondary). Figure 7.2 (taken from Glass and Smith, 1978) shows the separate relationships between class size and achievement for primary and secondary schools. The class size and achievement relationship seemed consistently stronger in the secondary grades than in the primary ones.

The second report (Smith and Glass, 1979) extended the earlier research by examining the relationship between class size and other outcome measures, such as classroom processes and learning environment, student attitudes and behaviour, and teacher satisfaction. It was argued by the authors that the examination of multidimensional class size effects helps us to understand how changes in class size influence student learning. The methodology employed for the earlier study,

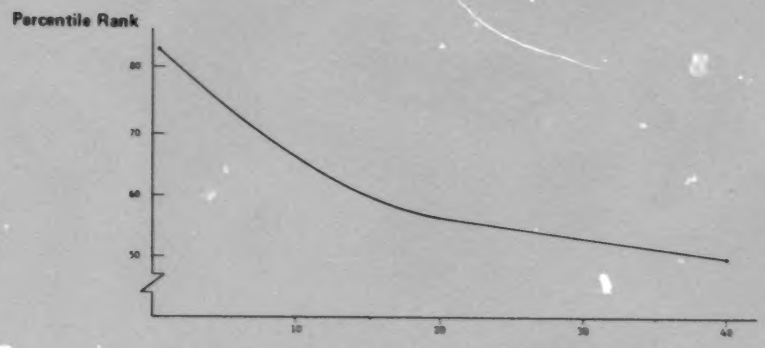

Figure 7.1 Relationship between Achievement and Class Size (Data Integrated across Approximately 100 Comparisons from Studies Exercising Good Experimental Control) (From Glass and Smith, 1978)

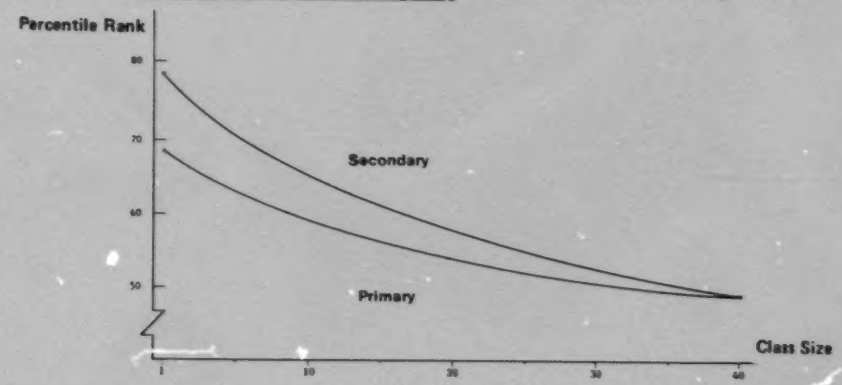

Figure 7.2 Consistent Regression Lines for the Regression of Achievement (Expressed in Percentile Ranks) on to Class Size for Primary and Secondary Grades (From Glass and Smith, 1978)

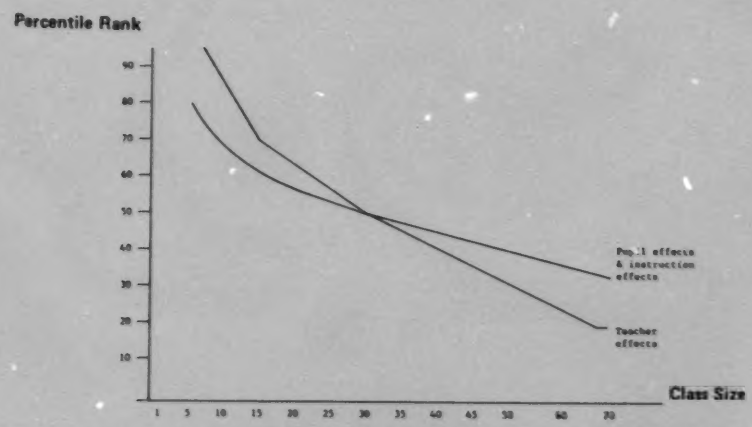

Figure 7.3 Graph of the Relationship of Class Size and Affective Effects on Pupils, Effects on Teachers, and Effects on Instructional Process (From Smith and Glass, 1979)

meta-analysis, was also used in this study and in all, 59 studies produced 371 class size effects which comprised the body of data for analysis. In integrating the results of different effects the authors reported:

- affective outcomes relating to students;
- effects on teachers; and
- effects on instructional environments and processes.

Figure 7.3 (from Smith and Glass, 1979) shows the separate relationship of these three effects. As can be seen there was a difference among the three categories of effect; although all three curves showed positive effects, the effects on teachers were the greatest:

> The difference in a teacher's work load, attitudes about students, morale, and general satisfaction varies from the 50th percentile in a class of 30 students to the 76th percentile in a class of 15. The difference in teacher effects in a class of 10 versus a class of 40 is 49 percentile ranks. Thus the truism is given empirical support: teachers feel better and feel they perform better in smaller classes. (Smith and Glass, 1979:33)

In separating the analysis into levels of schooling, it was shown that the effects were greatest for primary students and least for tertiary students. It was also shown that poorly controlled studies revealed larger effects but it could not be determined whether this reflected the robustness of the effects of class size or that the overall effects had been inflated through inclusion of such studies. The difference in effects produced between the two sets of studies amounts to about 10 percentile ranks even at the extreme points of the class size scale.

A more recent study on these affective outcomes (changes in instructional processes, teacher and student behaviour) of class size was conducted as part of the same project that involved the meta-analyses described above (Filby, Cahen, McCutcheon and Kyle, 1980). The study involved two schools from separate States and sampled two second-grade classes in each school. One school was in a rural location and the other in an inner city suburb. In effect, each of the four classes yielded a complex and distinctive case study. In general, it was shown that when class size was reduced, classroom management seemed easier, student attention rates were generally higher, and there was some indication that students were absent less often. It was also shown that with reduced class sizes teachers could spend more time with each individual student and thus felt they knew more about how each student was performing. These results suggest that what may be enhanced in smaller classes is academic learning time (Berliner, 1979) defined as the time for which students are actively engaged in work of appropriate difficulty. That might also be affected by out of class organizational features of the school. As class size was reduced, changes in the curriculum occurred although these

varied from one class to another: most changes took the form of an enrichment of the curriculum.

The authors drew attention to the fact that broader changes could have occurred but in fact did not:

> The lack of major changes calls attention to the complex, social reality of teaching and to the requirements for producing major change in such a system. The teachers began the year with an established style of teaching based on their beliefs and experiences. They faced constraints imposed by the district; for instance, in Virginia the reading and math curriculum series were mandated by the district and promotion of students to the next grade was dependent on reading at a particular level in the reading series. The teachers also faced constraints at the school level. The daily schedule was largely fixed. (Filby et al., 1980:16)

This last statement reiterates the position taken in the review of the school as an organization: there is an interactive effect between different levels of activity (classrooms, schools, States). Constraints operating at one level affect activities at other levels. Filby and co-authors make the point that to achieve major changes more is needed than a five-month reduction in class size: classroom routines have to be established. It was argued that teachers would have to come to accept the value of a different approach to teaching and would need training in new procedures.

De Vries, Lucasse and Shackman (1980) examined the relative impact on students of small group instruction compared with individualized instruction by means of a large-scale, 10-week experiment involving 57 classes and 19 teachers in a 2 x 2 experimental design. The 1187 students involved were in seventh- and eighth-grade language arts classes. The authors noted:

> In contrast to individualized instruction, which creates a separate learning environment for each student, small group learning approaches create learning environments composed of teams of students (with the teams usually comprised of students with different academic abilities), which reinforce performance at the small group as well as individual level. (De Vries, Lucasse and Shackman, 1980:2)

The authors concluded that, although learning was evidenced in both treatments, the small group method evidenced greatest growth in language art skills. In addition the small group approach had a modest (and beneficial) differential effect on self-concept. However, these effects did not hold with a standardized achievement measure. This could mean that the effect does not generalize across a wider range of language arts skills or it might have resulted from limitations arising from the standardized tests used.

Even ignoring the issue of changes in educational practice raised by Filby et al., the policy implications of the class size literature are still very complex. The results of the Glass and Smith studies have already been subjected to considerable critical appraisal and it is likely that this will continue in the future. A review of the meta-analyses by McGaw (1980) has called for some caution. McGaw made the point that, given some correlation sizes, the conclusions appeared somewhat overstated especially in the second report. More generally:

> Any review of research is limited to the extent and quality of the primary research available. Meta-analysis offers a sophisticated approach to research integration which has the potential to expose patterns otherwise unrecognized but has the corresponding risk of suggesting a precision and level of consensus not present in the primary research. (McGaw, 1980:331)

Assuming the underlying relationship displayed in the meta-analyses to be sound the implications are still varied, and in part dependent upon how one decides to interpret the curvilinear relationships shown. Looking at the cognitive achievement relationships, it could be argued that at the primary level of schooling there was little alteration in achievement levels with classes ranging from 40 through to 20. In Victoria, the mean size of all primary classes recorded for 1980 was 27.6 (Victoria. Education Department, 1980) and that calculated by Ainley (1982) for a probability sample of schools in 1979 was 28.9. Those figures were in fact close to the national averages for class size (Ainley, 1982). Even though this might suggest that a large increase in staff would be needed to create an average class size lower than 20, the situation is more complex. The average ratio of students to teachers in Victorian primary schools in 1979 was 20.4. Thus the creation of class sizes, for actual teaching groups, less than 20, would be feasible for some groups according to the way in which a school decided to use its resources. The size of teaching groups is partly a question of additional teachers and partly a question of their deployment. In the secondary sector, however, the shape of the curve differs a little and it could be argued that a 'take-off' point occurs at a slightly lower class size. Given that class sizes are generally lower in secondary schools (in Victorian high schools in 1979 the mean class size of all English classes was 24.6, and the ratio of students to teachers was 11.7) teacher organizations could argue that they should press for further reductions in pursuit of the big gains. Some politicians might still argue that given present economic constraints additional resources are unlikely to be forthcoming. Once the affective relationships are considered those interpretations become even more complicated. The curves depicted in Figure 7.3, especially the teacher effects curve, display a more marked relationship and as a result decisions made about increasing or decreasing class sizes because of a limited effect on achievement may be different if the first consideration was affective outcomes. Politicians and administrators might make the point that their prime consideration should be student achievement. Ignoring the fact that many educationists and parents (see Rosier, 1980) would argue against this restricted view of the aims and objectives of education, the danger with this interpretation of the relative weights to be attached to the two figures (cognitive achievements and affective outcomes) is that it ignores a possible relationship between the two:

> Achievement is at best a distal effect, several steps removed from class size. More directly affected by varying class sizes, so the argument goes, are the opportunities the teacher has for doing different things. This is not to say that each teacher will avail himself of these opportunities or that those teaching

> strategies chosen will inevitably be more propitious. But on the average, the environment and teaching processes afforded by decreased class size may produce in turn higher achievement test results. (Smith and Glass, 1979:3)

In a summary of the work conducted under the Class Size and Instruction Project, Glass, Cahen, Smith and Filby (1978) have tended not to view the implications of the research as an either/or situation with respect to reducing class sizes. They stressed the need to consider a range of alternatives: the use of paraprofessionals such as aides or parent volunteers (the meta-analyses reported actually used a ratio of students to teaching adults), scheduling and grouping within the classroom, use of small classes where the need is greatest. Already, it is fairly common practice for small groups to be formed for remediation or enrichment and in some secondary schools the smallest groups could well be some of the 'optional' classes. Schools have to make decisions about priorities. If small group instruction is beneficial who should receive it or which subjects should be stressed? Additional school resources need not only be seen in terms of smaller average class size but in an increased opportunity to provide for small group instruction.

It may be that one solution would involve varying the time-on-task for different students in different subjects with corresponding alterations in class sizes. A number of studies have shown a relationship between time spent in learning and achievement measures (see for example Keeves, 1976; Borg, 1980; Fisher, Berliner, Filby, Marliave, Cohen and Dishaw, 1980) and it would seem that this relationship is a linear one. Schools, in considering the best use of resources, might decide to place students in small classes for varying periods of time in order to optimize the benefits from both 'time-on-task' and small classes. The class size meta-analyses revealed that relationships between class sizes and outcomes held regardless of hours of instruction but this did not say to what extent extra hours of instruction benefited students in small classes compared with large classes.

There are clearly, then, a number of possible responses to the class size findings and these go beyond the consideration of more resources in order to reduce average class sizes, into more complicated considerations of possible organizational responses. Loader (1978) has argued:

> By using measures of class size the administrator can get some idea of staff deployment. It is at best a generalization that does not show the particular requirements of particular situations. The alternative to a 'class size' discussion is one that looks at the allocation of teachers. Such a dialogue has immediate relevance for the practising administrator who has not the power to change his class sizes or staffing ratio. (Loader, 1978:255)

The following sections describe the developments in the 16 schools visited with respect to the organization of small classes and the 'trade-off' between the various functions performed by teachers and the educational philosophies expounded by schools.

Teacher Time Usage in Primary Schools

Non-contact Time

Traditionally, primary school teachers receive less non-contact time than do their secondary colleagues. In fact in some primary schools general class teachers receive no such time and it is only certain categories of teachers who are freed from a class teaching commitment.

The issue of non-contact time for primary teachers is one that has evoked considerable comment. In a paper produced by the Education Department of Western Australia, Hill (1977) has argued that there are three sources of evidence in the argument for non-contact time for primary teachers:

- comparability with other groups of teachers;
- the nature of primary school teaching; and
- the effect on teacher performance and morale.

Hill contends that the Western Australian Teachers Union's argument for the need for non-contact time to provide curriculum and course planning, teacher development programs, student and parent counselling and educational visits or small group activities might better be seen as a case for greater flexibility in the way in which teachers are deployed than as a case for free time during teaching sessions. Hill also argues that, if primary teachers are to be allocated some in-school non-contact time, it is possible that this time could be taken from the time that teachers are at present not involved in class teaching, but within the official length of school hours. He concludes that a close examination of the way in which teachers organize and utilize their time is therefore important.

Evidence of this sort is not available in Australia. In England Hilsum and Cane (1971) studied the primary teacher's day. Among their conclusions were:

- primary teachers worked on average 38 hours per week;
- primary teachers with longer official school hours worked less in the evenings and overall those with the shorter official hours worked the most;
- less than seven per cent of free time was spent on private matters;
- nearly half of the teachers' work took place away from the classroom;
- teachers performed a very wide range of tasks during free time;
- a large part of many free periods was spent moving around the school and often interacting with students; and
- one-quarter of teachers' time was spent in clerical or mechanical tasks suitable for an aide.

Hill (1977), on the assumption that this evidence would not differ greatly in Western Australia, argued there was a reasonable case for non-contact time but data were

Table 7.1 Guidelines for Non-contact Time for Staff in Case Study Primary Schools, 1980, as a Percentage of Class Teaching Time[a]

	Principal	Deputy Principal or equivalent	Senior Teacher or equivalent	Class Teacher
Paterson District High	100	25	n.a.[b]	10
Mansfield	100	n.a.[b]	n.a.[b]	0
Marsh	100	0	0	0
Pritchard	100	100	0	0
Clarke	100	100	50	0
Boldrewood	100	100	0	5
Morant	0	0	0	0
Franklin	100	70	30	20
Rudd	100	50	25	10

Source: System-Level Reports, see McKenzie and Keeves (1982).

[a] Percentages are approximate as some guidelines are not specific.

[b] Not applicable.

unavailable to suggest just how much was needed and in what manner it should be provided.

There was evidence at the schools visited that where non-contact time was provided the overall satisfaction of teachers was somewhat higher than in those schools where little or no non-contact time was provided. As Hill (1977) notes:

> If non-contact time is viewed as one of the many variables which can be manipulated to achieve a total balance in accord with the goals of a particular school, then acceptance of the principle of a fixed proportion of non-contact time for all teachers may well be a retrogressive step. (Hill, 1977:23)

This argument was pursued by Hill to suggest that to ensure that individual teachers were not obliged to accept a much heavier load than other teachers a teaching load formula for assessing relative work load (taking account of total length of teaching sessions, class sizes, special characteristics of classes, and the like) might be devised.

The practices that occurred in different schools were often a reflection of the system-level constraints that operated on them. Nevertheless, within such constraints, schools do have some freedom with respect to practices. Table 7.1 shows the guidelines of the different educational systems with respect to non-contact time for different categories of teachers. The table presents, where they exist, guidelines to schools and not necessarily the practices that occur within schools. Table 7.1 does not describe the manner in which schools were expected to achieve the suggested non-contact time or the way they had gone about doing so.

Non-contact time in small primary schools. At Paterson District High School with primary enrolments of 183 students, the non-contact time available to class teachers was expected to be achieved by the use of the specialist staff allocated to the school. In addition, administrative relief was based upon the level of enrolments which in the case

of Paterson in 1979 provided 0.2 of a teacher with some additional help (0.1) arising as a result of the location of the pre-primary centre nearby. At Paterson the school had achieved the non-contact time for teachers in three ways:

- use of the music and art specialist teacher's time;
- use of the 30-minute a week scripture lesson; and
- use of the support teacher to provide additional administrative help for the deputy principal that should have been undertaken by a specialist teacher.

The result was that teachers generally received about a half day per week non-contact time but this was partly at the expense of the support role in the school. Non-contact time for class teachers was mostly taken up in preparation time for lessons, but the amount of time for this could be reduced if teachers were involved in school management issues such as camp organizations, or if teachers attended lessons to assist a specialist teacher. The deputy principal's free time mostly involved administrative work leaving him with little time for class preparation.

At Mansfield with an enrolment of 225, class teachers had no free time. Although some team teaching occurred, the purpose was not to create non-contact time and always the two teachers would teach together as the school stressed the need for small group instruction. Similarly, at Mansfield no specialist staff were available to provide this means of non-contact. On occasions, the principal or even the teacher aide would take a class to release a teacher, but this was performed in order to enable that teacher to engage in other teaching duties (for example to allow one teacher to take a weekly choir session) and not as a regular form of time release.

At Morant School the reduction in enrolments over recent years (there were 154 students in 1980) had meant that as well as all other staff even the principal of the school had a class allocation.

Non-contact time in medium-sized primary schools. At Boldrewood the staffing formulae were structured around an allowance of 1.5 hours of non-contact time per week for each class teacher. The conduct by one or more teachers of a specialist subject or a particular unit for a class other than their own was in some instances used as a means of obtaining non-contact time. In one unit three teachers had arranged for the sharing of classes in the areas of science, health and music so that while two of the teachers jointly conducted a lesson in one of these areas for the three classes combined, the third teacher was released for non-contact time. The joint conduct of the classes was allocated so that each of the three teachers obtained an equal amount of non-contact time. The combining of three classes in this manner could involve two teachers at any one time jointly teaching up to 75 students. Such arrangements at Boldrewood were greatly facilitated by the large open areas provided by the design of the units.

The education department supplied staff to Franklin School according to the school's total enrolment but, in calculating the way in which the entitlement would be composed, a series of weights were used: a class teacher was counted as 0.8, a senior teacher 0.7, a vice-principal 0.3 and a principal as nil. Schools were not obliged to use staff according to these weights, and at Franklin the actual arrangements enabled class teachers to have about 10 per cent free time, senior teachers 20 per cent and one vice-principal 70 per cent free time while the other had no formal class responsibility. Non-contact time was arranged through the use of the specialist teachers and through the allocation of one of the vice-principals. The timetable was so organized that all specialist lessons were consecutive to enable a substantial period of time to be provided. This had allowed teachers to develop their own program without disruption. In a previous year the vice-principal in charge of the primary (as opposed to infant) section had a class responsibility with time for administrative duties being provided by a part-time teacher employed by the school out of its own funds. That arrangement had limited the time which could be given to curriculum development in language and to staff development generally.

At Rudd Primary School, at the start of the school year, the staff had decided by vote to maintain the system's guidelines for non-contact time (as shown in Table 7.1) rather than to form smaller classes by having less non-contact time. As a consequence, the school had evolved methods of allocating staff so that this release time could be provided. The co-operative teaching format and the moderately large school size facilitated the arrangement by establishing the notion of several teachers working with the one class. The arrangement at Rudd was that one assistant class teacher and the two assistant principals did not have single class responsibilities but provided release time for the other staff. At this school the assistant class teacher providing non-contact time was a relatively experienced staff member. In general, she took responsibility for physical education, music, health and folk dancing. Mostly the general class teachers preferred the arrangement where their non-contact time was provided in specific areas of the curriculum such as those listed rather than in more formal developmental areas. The assistant principals provided release time mainly for the senior teachers and since this was a more substantial amount of time it did involve the more formal areas of the curriculum including aspects of mathematics or language arts. Not all class teachers had made use of the teacher providing non-contact time for this purpose however: at Year 2 for example the two teachers made use of this teacher to create three ability groups in language arts so as to provide more individual tuition. The role of the assistant class teacher at Rudd providing non-contact time appeared a demanding one in that it was difficult to establish an identification with a group of students.

At Pritchard, general class teachers were not provided with non-contact time and although the deputy principals were not allocated a class, their role was very well

structured and was not used to provide regular non-contact time for other staff. The flexibility of the teaching blocks did, however, on occasions enable some day release for teachers to attend staff development seminars at the school, but generally all activities normally performed during non-contact time had to occur after school hours. At this school, when some students went to specialist lessons other students were being taught by teachers so that this was not used as a method of releasing teachers. Similarly at Marsh, with the exception of the principal and a teacher involved in the Reading Recovery Scheme, all teachers had a full class allocation. The teacher involved in the reading scheme was replaced by a 'relieving teacher' for sessions each day so that she could take individual students for reading tuition. Other teachers did not receive any non-contact time in which to prepare or correct work. Previously it had been possible to arrange some non-contact time for teachers (one hour per week) as the school had additional staff, and this had also facilitated a fuller system of advice and guidance offered by senior staff to less experienced teachers. In 1980 all preparation, correction and guidance had to come outside of school hours - only the principal was free to assist teachers within school time. In fact during 1980 the principal had spent a good deal of his time in teaching duties so as to minimize the disruption caused by the reorganization at the beginning of 1980.

Non-contact time in large primary schools. At Clarke School, a school of over 1000 students, the principal's and three senior positions were non-teaching positions. However, one of the interesting facets of Clarke School was the fact that the class teachers received no formal non-contact time. In some other primary schools such time had been achieved by such means as the use of specialist teaching and through the pairing of teachers. In Clarke, class teachers were expected to be present when their classes attended specialist lessons (in part because the size of the school required teachers to perform follow-up lessons). In addition, it was not accepted practice in the open areas for non-contact time to be obtained by one teacher teaching a large group while the other teacher had time available for preparation and correction. The only formal allocation of free time for teachers at Clarke was when religious education was taken, but in 1980 this provision did not release many teachers as most students were not involved in religious education classes. As a result the class teachers were always involved in class teaching and their preparation time was performed outside of school hours. Excluding the preparation of the current curriculum programs teachers reported that they would spend up to 15 hours a week in preparation time. The situation for the specialist teachers was somewhat different but they too had little non-contact time and were mostly involved in teaching duties.

Summary. In general, primary school teachers did not have a great deal of non-contact time. That release time which was available was usually used for class

preparation, but even in the cases where free time was provided a lot of this work necessarily took place outside of school hours. The teachers in most schools did not, however, express great dissatisfaction with this, in part possibly because they had never expected any other arrangement.

Methods devised by schools to create free time were varied:

- use of specialist teachers;
- use of administrative teachers;
- use of an assistant teacher designated to provide non-contact time;
- use of a support teacher; and
- team teaching or paired teaching techniques.

Generally, all of these schemes had their advantages and disadvantages. Team teaching led to very large class groups for certain activities (and some schools did not have the spaces required), the use of the support teacher lessened the support provided, the use of a teacher designated to provide non-contact time created for that teacher a difficult role, and the use of administrative staff lessened the other administrative duties they could perform. The most common practice was to take free time at times when students were engaged in specialist lessons. The problem with this approach is that to some extent it devalues the importance of such lessons. First, specialist teachers expressed the view that where class teachers attended lessons students viewed the lessons as more important. Secondly, specialist staff could only provide a limited amount of specialist tuition to students, especially in the larger schools, and if class teachers were to extend this tuition they were better placed to do so if they attended the specialist classes.

Of the methods used to create non-contact time, only the pairing or team teaching technique did not require the use of staff additional to class teachers. At Mansfield School the staff were opposed to such a practice as they felt it reduced the benefits of individualized instruction. It is possible that certain activities at schools could be performed in large groups without the same need for this individualized approach.

Pupil:Teacher Ratios and Class Sizes

Table 7.2 lists the student:teacher ratios for the nine schools visited. The student-teacher ratios listed in the table, however, do not reveal the various ways that class sizes were created in the schools visited. To some extent this was affected by departmental guidelines concerning the organization of classes but generally schools were free to organize their classes as they wished.

Table 7.3 shows how the class sizes were distributed across year levels. In most schools the sizes of classes were smaller in the junior year levels in line with the belief that a more individualized approach was necessary there. At Marsh School, the principal had considered that class sizes in the junior area of the school were a little higher than

Table 7.2 Student:Teacher Ratios in the Case Study Primary Schools, 1980

Primary schools[a]	Ratio of students to all teachers	Ratio of students to teachers allocated a class
Paterson District High[b]	18.1	26.0
Mansfield	23.7	26.1
Marsh	28.8	30.6
Pritchard	21.4	34.6
Clarke	23.5	30.4
Boldrewood	16.7	23.7
Morant	24.1	25.7
Franklin	20.0	24.6
Rudd[c]	20.2	22.4

a The table excludes pre-primary or kindergarten enrolments.
b The very low overall rate here is somewhat misleading as it includes the principal who in district high schools is generally more involved with the secondary area of the school.
c Excluding special education classes.

Table 7.3 Average Sizes of Classes at Different Year Levels: Primary Schools, 1980

Schools[a]	Y1	Y2	Y3	Y4	Y5	Y6	Y7	Y8
Paterson District High	25	24	27	28	29	27	24	n.a.[b]
Mansfield	20	26	30	26	35	32	31	30
Marsh	30	31	31	32	34	34	n.a.	n.a.
Pritchard	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	35	35
Clarke	26	29	27	32	31	34	32	n.a.
Boldrewood	20	20	24	24	24	24	24	n.a.
Morant	24	27	28	30	30	30	n.a.	n.a.
Franklin	27	22	27	31	28	29	n.a.	n.a.
Rudd	31	29	31	33	27	32	n.a.	n.a.

a The figures in this table take account of composite classes. For example where Year 1 students are spread over two classes one containing 25 Year 1 students and the other containing 8 Year 1 students and 12 Year 2 students there would be 1.4 Year 1 classes for 33 Year 1 students giving an average class size of 23.6. Year 'K' students are omitted from the table.
b Not applicable.

he would have desired and he had in part assisted in the teaching of that area. At that school, class sizes were fairly even across year levels. In 1981 the principal had hoped to adjust these class sizes to meet this problem. Although kindergarten or reception class sizes are not shown in the table, it was generally accepted that these classes should be kept as low as possible.

One or two other considerations had affected class sizes in the schools visited. At Paterson the largest class (one of 29 students) was considered to have the most able students and it was felt therefore to be more easily managed. At Mansfield, two of the composite classes formed in the senior syndicate were designed with an increased proportion of 'difficult' children (either behaviourally or academically) and the sizes of these groups had been reduced. The principal, although reasonably content with the sizes of different classes, would have preferred that one class with a first year teacher was smaller. At Marsh School, where the largest class was as high as 35, although teachers did not generally complain about class sizes, it was considered that in the two prefabricated buildings sizes were too high as in these buildings noise and overcrowding were potential problems. At Rudd School the only composite class had been made substantially smaller than other classes.

Small group instruction. The distribution of class sizes across different year levels as shown in Table 7.3 reveals little of the various strategies employed by schools to create small group instruction for different purposes. Perhaps the greatest flexibility for forming small groups without the use of extra staff occurred in those situations where a form of co-operative teaching existed. At Rudd, for example, one of the aims of the system was to provide the opportunity for more flexible and fluid groupings of students especially where remedial or enrichment activities were considered desirable. The following is an indication of the fluidity which was possible under such arrangements. For the third term of 1980, the two teachers working with Year 4 students had restructured the home groups so that a group of 18 students who had been the source of behaviour problems were separated in one group. At Year 6, because of the way in which non-contact time had been organized, a total of four teachers was involved and ability groupings at four levels had been created in reading. The school did, however, also make use of extra staff (that is staff not allocated to a class) to create small groups. For example, the two teachers at Year 2 forfeited some of their non-contact time by making use of the teacher who would normally have provided such time in order to create three ability groups for language arts. At Rudd there also existed a small class of eight to ten students with impaired hearing who had two staff allocated to them. This special staffing was, however, additional to normal entitlement.

At Franklin School, small group instruction occurred in music where individual students had the opportunity to extend their music instruction by participating in choir and orchestra sessions each for one hour per week, and special teaching in selected instruments was also available. In order to sustain such a program, however, the school had to plan its use of resources carefully. The school had allocated to it a full-time music specialist in exchange for a class teacher and from funds made available to it, it had employed for short periods another specialist music teacher. This flexibility was possible because the system in which Franklin was based allowed such discretionary

appointments and allowed school-based staff appointment. As a result the school was able to decide which areas of the program it wished to stress, and acquire materials or personnel to meet the situation. In a similar way the school had placed considerable emphasis on its reading program. It had, for example, made use of funds which were available to the schools to employ a part-time teacher to assist low achieving readers for five hours each week. Similarly, Franklin used some small group instruction for remedial purposes.

At Boldrewood School, small group instruction had been created in the areas of multicultural education, special education, ballet and Greek language. Such provision had been made possible by the presence on the staff of specialists in these areas. In 1980, each of the three units had the services of a part-time multicultural education teacher. Approximately 35 students from each unit were involved in the multicultural education program, and each student for a total of about two hours per week. The general form of interaction was for the teacher to withdraw either an individual student or a group of up to 10 students from their normal class activities and to engage in intensive language development work with those students. The Greek language and ballet classes at Boldrewood School were only attended by students with special interest in these areas and as a result were generally fairly small. The special education teacher was responsible for the operation of a small, region-wide special education unit established at Boldrewood. In 1980, the unit enrolled three students from schools in the surrounding area. These students, who were in general of above average intelligence, had been selected for attendance at the unit on the basis of severe behavioural problems which limited their capacity to participate in normal classes. The students attended the special education unit for a maximum of two years after which they returned to their home schools. At Boldrewood the special education students engaged in intensive teaching sessions with their own teacher as well as spending about seven hours per week with other classes. During these periods, the special education teacher reciprocated by conducting lessons for some students from the classes which the special education students were attending.

At Pritchard School, small group instruction was achieved through the flexibility that the co-operative teaching teams allowed. In one block, for example, it was estimated that a maximum of one-fifth of the total teaching time would occur in the home groups. In addition, at this school the associate principals had provided extra teaching resources to create ability-based groups.

At Marsh School, considerable attention had been given to providing a comprehensive reading program. In 1979, specialist assistance had been available but in 1980 this was no longer the case. In part, as a response to this, two other reading schemes involving small group instruction had been initiated. First, the school had been involved, along with 50 other schools, in a Reading Recovery Scheme which involved an

intensive course for remedial students on an individual basis. One teacher in the school was responsible for this program, the education authority supplying a replacement teacher. Over a year it was felt that between 8 and 12 students would benefit from the scheme. Each student received one half-hour instruction session each afternoon on an individual basis. The school and the itinerant reading specialist believed the scheme was highly successful in raising the standards of students to a level that precluded the need for further specialist assistance. The scheme however, which was financed by the education department, had been planned only to last one year for the 50 schools involved and for 1981, despite an appeal by the principal to the education department, the original 50 schools would lose their replacement teachers. The principal, although admitting the high cost of staff time in 'one to one' teaching of this sort, had been so impressed with its success that he was hoping, with staff co-operation in the form of increased class sizes (perhaps in the first two terms when enrolments would not have reached their maximum), to be able to continue the scheme in 1981. The second special reading program involved the principal taking small groups of slow readers (about six or seven students) for extra reading for one half-hour session each afternoon. His assessment of this scheme was that it was nowhere near as satisfactory as the planned intensive Reading Recovery Scheme but that it was still beneficial.

At Clarke School, and at Paterson School, small group instruction occurred with the occasional withdrawal of students for remedial work. Unlike Paterson, Clarke School had a specialist teacher (and a special centre) able to perform such a role. In 1980, this teacher had in fact reduced the time given to withdrawal classes from one and a half hours' length to three-quarters of an hour so as to increase his advisory role. In a school of over 1000 students he had found it difficult to find time to conduct all the work necessary.

Some schools had been able to create small group instruction through the use of ancillary staff, parents or students in the school program. These practices are discussed in Chapter 8 of this report.

Summary

It can be seen that schools had at their disposal two main methods of providing small group instruction, other than the creation of a number of different groups within their own class without additional staff to assist them:

- the flexibility possible through co-operative or paired teaching;
- the use of staff not allocated to classes.

In the case of the latter there were examples of use being made of administrative teachers, specialist teachers and of class teachers designated particular roles in the school. Also, there was the interesting example of Franklin located in a system which

allowed schools to have considerable influence in the allocation of staff. In this way it was able to make a judgment about which areas of the program it wished to stress and appoint staff accordingly, thereby enabling small group instruction in that area.

Although the trade-off between non-contact time and class sizes is more frequently discussed with regard to secondary schools where teachers have more non-contact time it is still an issue in primary schools. At Rudd School for example at the beginning of the year the staff had decided to create a system that provided non-contact time of the order suggested by education department guidelines rather than reduce class sizes. Notwithstanding this some staff had been prepared to forfeit this time to make use of the teacher engaged to provide non-contact time so as to create small ability groupings.

School Management Functions

In a sector where the majority of assistant and senior teachers and even some deputy principals and principals have to be fully or partly engaged in teaching duties, the mechanisms that schools adopt to provide for school management are of especial interest. Not surprisingly, the most sophisticated procedures had been adopted by those schools with the most staff free from class teaching duties.

School management in small schools. In three small schools visited, the administrative duties were the responsibility of the principal alone. This could cause some difficulties. For example, at Morant School in 1978 there had been a reclassification of the school as a consequence of the falling enrolment. This had several consequences:

(i) The position of principal was no longer a non-teaching position.

(ii) One of the teaching positions was no longer designated as a deputy principal's position.

(iii) Because of the reduced enrolment one additional teaching position was lost.

(iv) The time allocated for the position of teacher-librarian was reduced from three days to one day per week (i.e. from 0.6 to 0.2).

(v) The time allocated for a craft teacher was reduced from two days to one day per week (i.e. from 0.4 to 0.2).

(vi) The position of clerical assistant was reduced from being full-time to being just three hours per day.

A relatively small change in enrolments had changed the classification of Morant School. Consequently there had been a marked change in the level of resources available. Probably the most significant of the changes was the fact that the position of principal was no longer categorized as a non-teaching position. This meant that significantly less time was available to assist teachers in helping children with special difficulties, to attend to community liaison and administrative matters, and to facilitate staff development. The fact that the position of principal was a teaching, rather than a

non-teaching, position imposed further constraints on the allocation of staff. Given that the school was only a little below the enrolment at which a non-teaching principal would be considered necessary, and given the social composition of the area served by the school, the demands on the principal's time were considerable. Since a clerical assistant could only be employed for three hours each day the principal had to teach in a room accessible to the school office and telephone, and had to be assigned a class which would work independently when the principal was called out of the class. This resulted in the principal teaching the Year 6 class.

At Paterson District High School the deputy principal, who had a class allocation, was nominally in charge of the primary section as well as having responsibility for the operation of a nearby pre-primary centre. Although the principal was able to assist in administrative issues his concern was traditionally related to the secondary area of the school. The deputy principal at Paterson received administrative assistance (0.3 equivalent full-time) to engage in such activities. However, the arrangement had necessitated a special class allocation: as he would be called from classes for administrative duties it was considered essential he should have the Year 7 class as these students were better able to work unassisted.

At Mansfield, in common with other schools where these positions existed, it was expected that the deputy principal, senior teacher of junior classes, and an acting senior teacher would be given extra duties related to school management, in addition to those management duties performed by the principal. In the case of the deputy, on occasions he received non-contact time when the part-time teacher was in his class. The senior teacher of junior classes had a full class allocation for the first time in two years and consequently had less formal time for the duties associated with that role (for example, guidance for other teachers and demonstration lessons). Nevertheless some non-contact time was available in the afternoon and this was used for guidance activities, a duty considered more important at the beginning of a year when teachers were less settled. In addition, the senior teacher was responsible for organizing junior syndicate trips as well as maintaining close links with pre-school students and organizations.

At Mansfield, most teachers had been given a special resource role. The principal felt that, it was sensible to make use of individual teachers, both to capitalize on their talents as well as to provide them with responsibilities. The principal also felt that there might be occasions when teachers would feel more willing to approach other teachers, rather than the principal, for help. Consequently different resource tasks were allocated to various teachers. One teacher had a reading resource role, another handwriting and social studies, as well as acting as a music specialist in the school, and yet another teacher had overall responsibility for mathematics as well as sports. Other teachers held resource roles in art and the library. It was only in the junior syndicate, where traditionally the senior teacher was a generalist, that one or two teachers did not have

specific roles. It was expected that teachers would give assistance to other teachers in their resource areas. Much of the principal's task was school management, but close to half a week was spent in classroom duties even though no specific class required teaching. One part of the principal's role in the school was to act as a 'community support' worker at various levels. This could take the form of practical help for parents, but on other occasions it involved a more liaison role with parents and the community.

School management in medium-sized schools. The three executive staff at Pritchard (principal, deputy principal, and associate principal) exercised school-wide management responsibilities. In addition to performing normal administrative duties, the principal worked with the other executive staff in ensuring that the school functioned as a coherent unit (rather than as separate sub-schools), in identifying areas in which some special action was required, and acting to support and advise other staff. The roles of the deputy and associate principal had evolved from ones involving a fair amount of administrative work allied with specific curriculum responsibility to ones which were more generally supportive of the teaching staff. Within the school these two staff had become known as 'deans' and each had assumed responsibility for working with two of the teams. This development had occurred in response to a perceived need to provide more help to teams in interpreting the fairly broadly stated objectives in each of the curriculum areas. Each dean would provide support for the team leaders by meeting with them one night each week and by participating unobtrusively in the daily planning meetings of each team. In addition to providing advice on curriculum matters, they would assist where necessary the development of an appropriate leadership style. Each of the deans also performed some administrative work of a general type (one was concerned more with student administration, the other with staff matters), curriculum development (one specialized in mathematics, music and science, the other specialized in reading and language development) and some teaching. In these areas they assisted across all the teams.

The executive staff at Franklin consisted of the principal and two vice-principals. None of these had a direct responsibility for classes. One of the two vice-principals spent about 30 per cent of the teaching week involved with classes. One vice-principal was in charge of the infant section (Years K-2) of the school and the other was in charge of the primary section of the school (Years 3-6). The fact that the school was reasonably large was one factor motivating such a division of responsibilities.

At Boldrewood, in addition to the availability of a principal and a deputy principal for school management, the unit organization had affected the management functions of the school. To a large degree the three units were administratively independent of each other. Within each unit the teachers and support staff met weekly to consider items of interest to the unit, discuss issues to be considered by the whole staff, and consider reports from the unit representative. Each week, representatives from the three units

and a representative of the teacher aides met with the principal and deputy principal to discuss issues of school-wide interest.

At Rudd School, the three executive staff (principal and two assistant principals) provided the basis for administrative work in the school. However, the provision of non-contact time in the school did provide the capacity for teachers to become involved in the provision of extensive school-based curriculum development. There were six such committees covering the areas of language arts and reading, mathematics, social science and science, physical education and health, art and craft, and music. These committees were intended to develop, support and review school curricula in those areas. Every staff member was involved in at least one subject committee.

At Marsh, the school management functions were in part dependent on the organization of staff groups. It is usual practice that New Zealand schools organize their staff into syndicate groups. The teacher syndicates at Marsh school comprised four groups of teachers: two groups of teachers in the junior area of the school and two groups of teachers in the senior area of the school. Most decisions which affected teaching practices or curriculum topics were taken in the weekly planning meetings of the teacher syndicates. The principal noted that he was unlikely to be involved in such decisions. His role, in conjunction with his senior staff, would concern the administrative and policy decisions affecting the running of the whole school.

School management in large schools. At Clarke, all school administration and policy formation were the responsibility of the principal and deputy principal with some tasks delegated to the senior and infant mistresses. The implementation of policy was arranged through the establishment of three semi-autonomous departments operating within broad school guidelines. Years 6 and 7 were separated under the general guidance of the principal; Years 4 and 5 were under the guidance of the deputy principal; and Years 1, 2 and 3 were under the guidance of both the senior mistress and infant mistress, the latter having responsibility for Year 1 and shared responsibility for Year 2.

The staff members at Clarke School not allocated to a class were the administrative personnel: the principal, deputy principal, senior mistress and infant mistress. According to the questionnaire completed in 1979 these teachers would teach on average 13 hours a week (about half that of assistant class teachers). This teaching would mainly be to take classes on a relief basis but might also involve demonstration lessons. The other duties of such personnel were mainly school-management and duties were allocated between the four administrative teachers to cover all areas of school management. One duty allocated to the principal, which was a recent addition to his role, was responsibility for the pre-school centre following the integration of pre-school education into the state system. Although the education department encouraged close involvement between primary and pre-schools, it would seem that there was a little

hesitancy in this area in part because of primary teachers' lack of experience with pre-school operations.

At Clarke School, also, school-wide curriculum committees had been formed and these committees had been important in generating guidelines for the teaching of different subject areas. The committees were available to continue investigation into these areas so as to provide regular reviews.

Summary

This section has sought to distinguish various functions necessary for the efficient running of a primary school. These functions were designated as classroom teaching, class-related management and school management. In the allocation of staff to schools, systems have attempted to provide for all such functions in different ways. The class teaching entitlements encapsulated in the class student-teacher ratios have tended to decrease over the years as systems have increased staff to schools to enable a more individualized approach to teaching (see McKenzie and Keeves, 1982). Such ratios varied from 24 to 35 in the schools visited. However, in all schools it was noticeable there had been attempts to organize their staff or the teaching arrangements in order to reduce such ratios for instruction in different activities at different times. This often took the form of the stress on a particular area of the curriculum, for example the intensive reading schemes at Marsh. Schools had generally found a variety of ways of reducing such class sizes but in most this had required the use of staff other than those allocated to a class. The paired or co-operative teaching arrangements were exceptions and in some ways so was the structure at Franklin where staff had been appointed from general purpose funds made available by the education department.

Systems varied with respect to their allocation of non-contact time for teachers to engage in preparation or correction. In many schools, all such duties had to be performed outside of school hours and this could be very time-consuming: for example at Clarke, excluding the preparation of the current curriculum programs, teachers reported that they would spend up to 15 hours a week in preparation. The teachers at this school were generally inexperienced and this may have added to the amount of preparation they saw as necessary. Schools had employed various strategies to provide non-contact time, for example the use of specialist, administrative or other teachers and the use of paired teaching techniques.

School management functions were generally left to the executive staff of the school. Senior teachers at primary schools, unlike their counterparts at secondary schools, would generally not have much non-contact time and could therefore only be used through their role as 'leaders' in different areas of the school. Class teachers at the schools were usually only involved in such activities through the decision-making

machinery but occasionally resource roles were allocated to staff to provide guidance to other teachers in one or more curriculum areas.

Education systems, through their allocation practices, make certain judgments about school needs. The case studies suggested that schools have considerable differences in their perceived needs, and consequently the greater the flexibility that a school has to appoint and allocate staff the more these needs are likely to be met. An interesting example of a move in this direction was the means by which general purpose funds were provided to schools in the system in which Franklin was located.

Of particular interest with respect to the adequate provision of resources to meet the three roles listed are the very small schools. Paterson and Morant, in particular, both faced problems with respect to the provision of school-management resources. The reason for this was that the executive staff were fairly heavily involved in teaching duties and other personnel were not available for executive duties. Some systems attempt to remedy the problem by the provision of some administrative support, but for the very small schools the indication was that such provision could not fully compensate for the lack of an executive staff member completely free of teaching. The point was made by one principal that in such schools there is a need for additional administrative assistance not so much in relief time for executive staff but in the form of trained administrators who need not necessarily have teaching experience.

One aspect of the school management role which did involve the majority of staff was curriculum development and advice. It was not unusual for many of the schools visited to leave the majority of administrative and school policy decisions to the principal. However, with respect to the issues related to their own teaching (curriculum and teaching styles), the staff showed a strong desire to be involved. This involvement either took the form of membership of curriculum committees or membership of teams of teachers responsible for different areas of the school. In some ways this corresponded to the faculty or department organization in the secondary school.

Teacher Time Usage in Secondary Schools

Non-contact Time

Table 7.4 shows the guidelines of the education systems with respect to non-contact time for different categories of teacher. This table shows only the guidelines to schools and not the actual timetabling practices. What actually occurs in secondary schools is a balance between class sizes, range of curriculum offerings, intensity of study of different subjects and guidelines concerning teacher non-contact time.

Loader (1978) has noted that it is possible to decrease the number of teachers required in any one school of given size by any one or more of the following policies:

Table 7.4 Guidelines for Non-contact Time as a Percentage of Class Teaching Time: Secondary Schools, 1980

School	Principal	Deputy Principal (or equivalent)	Senior Teacher (or equivalent)	Assistant Teacher
Paterson District High	100	n.a.[a]	38	24
Lawson	100	-[e]	-[e]	23
Palmer	100	No guidelines	No guidelines	No guidelines
Lindsay	100[b]	100[b]	40	20
Kendall College	100	70	55	32
Dennis Technical	100	-[e]	-[e]	32[c]
Richardson[d]	No guidelines	No guidelines	No guidelines	-[e]
Brennan	100	65	45	30

Source: System-Level Reports, see McKenzie and Keeves (1982).

a Not applicable.

b The guidelines state that principals and deputy principals should maintain as much class contact as their other duties permit.

c Guidelines suggest an additional four hours would be used for 'other' duties.

d There was no minimum stipulation but teachers could be required to teach up to 25 hours a week. Contact hours for staff in senior positions were determined by prevailing circumstances at the principal's discretion, and in small schools the principal might also need to teach.

e The Teacher Tribunal guidelines give only a maximum contact time and although senior staff would receive an extra non-contact loading guidelines are not listed.

- increasing the teaching load for every teacher;
- reducing the subject electives available to students to a number equivalent to the number of core classes;
- increasing the number of subjects that each student must study;
- varying the number of periods for each subject;
- reducing the face-to-face contact between student and teacher and thereby increasing the number of private study periods;
- reducing the number of periods available in a school week; and
- introducing vertical grouping of students and so permitting larger class sizes but fewer teachers.

Clearly alteration of the non-contact time 'variable' amongst these possibilities has implications for the other strategies.

The relationship between student:teacher ratios, average class size and average teacher non-contact time has also been discussed by Lindner (1981). He demonstrates that at a given student-teacher ratio, a trade-off exists between average non-contact time and average class size: the higher average non-contact time, the higher average class size and vice versa.

As was the case with respect to primary schools, there is little available research evidence concerning work loads of secondary school teachers. Palmer and Worley (1976) have studied work loads of Tasmanian high school teachers as reported by these teachers. The authors concluded that an 'average' teacher would:

- be due to have 255 minutes of 'free' time per week but would lose 121 minutes of this as a result of attendance at meetings, supervision of other classes, and other school activities;
- spend at school, while students were out of class, nearly three hours per week comprised of 'duties', full staff meetings, sectional staff meetings, and supervision of extra-curricular actitivies; and
- spend, outside of regular school hours, about six and a half more hours per week comprising supervision of students' extra-curricular activities, course planning, lesson planning, material preparation, marking, setting tests, and professional reading.

The authors also noted some differences with respect to sub-sets of teachers. For example, male teachers claimed to spend more time than did female teachers at a number of school-related activities, although female teachers claimed to spend longer in lesson preparation. The more experienced teachers claimed to spend less time in course and lesson preparation, marking, and supervision of extra-curricular activities but more time in full staff meetings than did less experienced teachers. Teachers of 'academic' subjects claimed to spend the most time at school work (planning, marking, reading, setting tests, etc). Finally, teachers who had taught in both 'open' and traditional settings believed that their work loads, satisfaction gained, pressure and tiredness resulting from work were all a little greater in the open compared with the traditional situation.

In New Zealand, a teacher work load survey was conducted in the course of the 1979 school year, the intention of which was to provide an overview of teacher work loads on the basis of a coded log of activities of teachers in a representative sample of 32 schools. Although a progress report has been provided to the Education Department concerning work loads of teachers of different categories and the administrative and professional duties undertaken by these teachers, as yet details of this study are not publicly available.

Non-contact time in small schools. At Paterson District High School with only 75 secondary enrolments, the secondary teachers received on average only 18 per cent non-contact time as opposed to the recommended guidelines of 24 per cent. However, as each teacher in a district high school is a quasi-head of department (or even a head of more than one department) it could possibly be argued they should have a non-contact time more appropriate to a senior teacher loading. At Paterson, the logic for the high teaching load was the desire to offer a wide range of subjects to secondary students. The principal noted that this was usually not possible in district high schools but the staff felt that the school should, if possible, offer a range of subjects similar to that offered at city high schools so as to attract students to the school. One way that the school had been able to offer such subjects was the willingness of staff to take a range of optional subjects and lessen their non-contact time.

At Richardson (a school of about 250 students), in 1979, it had been reported that

the assistant class teachers had about 25 per cent non-contact time, that the subject masters had about 44 per cent non-contact time, that the senior mistress had about 55 per cent non-contact time and the principal 85 per cent. In 1980, however, as a result of a change of policy which altered the basis for allocating subject masters from one related to the number of teacher hours devoted to the subject to one related to enrolments in the subject area, the three subject master positions (English, science and mathematics) had been lost. Non-contact times in 1980 had therefore changed: assistant teachers, the senior mistress and the principal received 32 per cent, 74 per cent and 85 per cent respectively. In addition the one subject master in 1979 who on reclassification had decided to remain at Richardson, rather than seek a subject master position elsewhere, had been given a somewhat reduced load on a temporary basis only so that he could continue the duties in which he had previously been involved. Other teachers were also given reduced loads to engage in various duties: for example, the teacher responsible for the library had an extra two hours free time each week. Generally the assistant teachers would use their non-contact time for class-related activities but part of the time would also be used in co-operative 'departmental' or faculty activities to perform subject master roles following the loss of those positions. Both the principal and senior mistress were predominantly involved in administrative work and the non-contact time of the latter had been increased after first term of 1980 to increase her capacity to fulfil an administrative role. Both of these staff members believed, however, in the importance of maintaining a class teaching role.

Non-contact time in medium-sized schools. At Lawson School, the time allocation of teachers was structured such that class teachers had 38 per cent non-contact time, co-ordinators (sub-school or faculty) who were generally senior teachers received between 44 per cent and 63 per cent non-contact time, the deputy principal received 88 per cent and the principal 100 per cent. At Kendall College, the principal taught four hours per week. Other staff worked according to the guidelines set out in Table 7.4.

At Dennis Technical School an important influence on class organization and teacher time allocation was the Technical Teachers Association. There was a strong union commitment at the school shared by both trade teachers and teachers of other subjects. About 90 per cent of the school staff belonged to the union so that any industrial dispute virtually halted the school program. The union guidelines suggested a maximum teaching load of 18 hours per week. At Dennis no union member had a higher load although two non-members taught 19 hours and one other taught 20 hours. Neither the principal nor the two vice-principals had formal teaching allocations although each taught classes on some occasions. Few of the heads of department at Dennis were designated senior teachers. However, most received a special duties allowance involving a financial allowance. These allowances were allocated each year on the recommendation of a school committee, and most were allocated to heads of

department. Senior teachers had teaching loads just two hours per week less than a full teaching allotment, and the same reduction in non-teaching duties. Heads of department who were not senior teachers had only a two-hour reduction in non-teaching duties and this represented a change of policy from 1979 when larger time allowances were given. In addition, the school had year level co-ordinators and these staff received four hours per week time allocation for these duties: two from reduced teaching loads and two from reduced non-teaching duties. In general, both the co-ordinators and heads of department felt they had insufficient time for their management duties: the effect was that they considered their class-related management duties suffered.

At Brennan the teaching loads for different categories of staff corresponded closely to the guidelines listed in Table 7.4. It should be noted that the teachers association to which a large number of Brennan staff belonged viewed the 27 and 28 periods suggested teaching loads for assistants as acceptable minima and maxima respectively. This policy had led to the school deciding to split one junior class into two for one period per week so as to build up the teaching load of an assistant teacher to the accepted minimum of 27 periods. In practice at Brennan, excluding sport supervision, general assistants taught 27 periods out of 40 (32 per cent non-contact), senior teachers taught 22 periods (45 per cent non-contact), the deputies taught nine periods (77 per cent non-contact) and the principal was free of class teaching.

Non-contact time in large schools. At Palmer School, the principal was free of class teaching and the three deputies would teach only about three hours a week each on average whereas the assistant teachers had 24 per cent and the senior teachers 35 per cent free time respectively. At Palmer School it had been noted by the principal that additional staff had been allocated to the school in its early days as it was a new open plan school. At that time the school had decided upon a set of aims and objectives and developed curricula to meet these aims. One such aim was the provision of a wide range of subjects with substantial student choice. More recently the department of education was reducing the preferential treatment available to the school. The principal argued that the consequences of this action would be to either reduce the curriculum offerings (especially in those 'welfare' areas with low student-teacher ratios), reduce the non-contact time available to teachers or increase class sizes. He felt that teachers at Palmer already worked with high teaching loads and it was therefore most likely that the curriculum range would be reduced. The principal felt that economic considerations were outweighing educational issues in failing to adapt to the specific needs of individual schools which had developed an educational philosophy over a period of time and which had no capacity in which to adapt to changes within the school structure.

At Lindsay School, the class teachers had on average 26 per cent non-contact time, and the senior staff had 43 per cent free time. It was estimated that the principal would teach one hour a week and the deputies on average one hour per week also. In addition,

Table 7.5 Student-Teacher Ratios in the Case Study Secondary Schools, 1980

School	Ratio of students to all teachers	Ratio of students to teachers excluding specialist[a] teachers	Ratio of students to teachers excluding specialist and executive teachers[b]
Paterson District High	13.2	13.2	16.1
Lawson	13.6	15.0	15.7
Palmer	13.1	14.2	15.0
Lindsay[c]	13.5	14.1	14.9
Kendall College	11.3	11.7	12.6
Dennis Technical	9.5	11.0	11.3
Richardson	10.8	11.3	11.8
Brennan[d]	13.0	14.4	14.9

a Included as specialists here would be non-teaching specialists such as remedial teachers, teacher librarians, youth education officers, career guidance officers, pupil welfare co-ordinators etc.

b Included as executive staff, would be the principal and deputy principals.

c Excluding teachers paid on hourly rates.

d This school was a declared disadvantaged school and consequently had some extra staffing.

special loadings were given to the sub-school co-ordinators (41 per cent non-contact time) and the assistant co-ordinators (31 per cent). Unlike their counterparts at Lawson, co-ordinators and their assistants at Lindsay could not be senior teachers but they had been allocated a load similar to that of the senior staff.

Summary

In summary, the amount of non-contact time given to teachers of different categories at different schools varied greatly. It appeared that in those schools sited in an educational system with strong unions the practices inside schools were closely related to the union guidelines. This was especially noticeable in Lawson, Dennis and Brennan. In other systems the potentiality for flexibility and the willingness of teachers to alter their contact periods seemed greater. In two schools, in order to achieve a wide curriculum, non-contact times were very low, and this policy appeared to be supported by teachers. This is not to say that teachers did not feel the need to have increased non-contact time for various purposes. Generally the problem of insufficient time was not related to class-related management but more to providing the time for the school management duties that non-executive staff had been involved in. This issue is taken up in a later section of this chapter.

Table 7.6 Time Weighted Average Class Sizes[a]: Secondary Schools, Years 7 to 12, 1980

School	Year levels					
	7	8	9	10	11	12
Paterson	n.a.[b]	20.2	19.1	18.5	n.a.	n.a.
Lawson	23.1	22.5[c]	22.5[c]	22.5[c]	21.2	20.2
Palmer	n.a.	25.7	24.7	22.1	19.5	17.1
Lindsay	n.a.	24.1	23.6	23.5	19.5	18.4
Kendall	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	16.8	16.8
Dennis	20.8	20.0	19.8	19.7	16.8	n.a.
Richardson	21.1	18.3	16.3	16.3	14.4	7.3
Brennan	21.5	23.5	24.0	24.4	18.5	11.8

a Calculated by estimating the number of teacher hours involved in the teaching of students of different year levels.
b Not applicable.
c The middle school at Lawson had composite classes.

Student-Teacher Ratios and Class Sizes

Table 7.5 shows the student-teacher ratios for the different schools visited. The ratios listed in Table 7.5 varied quite considerably. The most generous allocation applied to the technical school (in part because of the need to have small ratios in the trades and technical areas of such schools), the senior college, and the small secondary school, Richardson. This school was in fact located in a system where generally the student-teacher ratio would be higher than in a number of other systems (see Ainley, 1982). However, the formulae were devised to give a more generous allocation to the small schools to enable them to offer a similar curriculum range to other schools in the system. Table 7.5 also shows the varying extent of the provision of executive and specialist teaching staff and it is noticeable here that the two smallest schools, Richardson and Paterson, had to make use of their class teachers to make such provision. The issue of system-wide provision of staff to schools is discussed by McKenzie and Keeves (1982).

The student-teacher ratios say little about the ways the different schools had decided to form class groups. Sizes of different groups might vary from one year level to the next, from one subject to the next, or from core to elective subjects. Table 7.6 shows the time-weighted average class sizes for classes at different year levels in the schools visited.

The range of the curriculum in proportion to the school size at secondary schools is a key factor affecting the distribution of class sizes. If the range is kept small (a large core with few electives for example) smaller class sizes are possible in all subjects, but if the range is wide (a small core with many electives) the smaller elective groupings usually lead to corresponding larger core groupings. Ainley (1982) has discussed this

issue further. The distribution of class sizes therefore in part reflects the educational philosophy of the school: the stress on general as against a narrow curriculum range and, possibly, the stress on academic as against vocational subjects. At another level, the distribution may reflect the general desire to have as many classes as possible as small as possible to facilitate individualized instruction. As noted by Lindner (1981), however, a low average class size is associated with a relatively low average non-contact time.

Paterson. It has already been noted that at Paterson the overriding consideration was to offer as wide a curriculum as possible within the constraints operating. Individual teachers taught a wide range of subjects, and had relatively little non-contact time, and as will be described in a later chapter parents and community members also assisted in the program. On average the core subjects were taught in classes of sizes around 26 yet some classes as small as five did exist in the elective areas. In home economics and woodwork, plant constraints limited class sizes to below 20. In 1980, as Table 7.6 shows, the time-weighted average sizes of classes in Years 8, 9 and 10 were 20.2, 19.1 and 18.5 respectively. Although the percentage of time spent on the optional subjects did not alter much between year levels, the number of options differed, causing the variations between year level average class sizes.

Palmer. Compared with other schools, the class sizes at Palmer were fairly high across the whole of the school. This only in part reflected the student-teacher ratio at the school, since staff at Palmer had relatively little non-contact time because of the emphasis on a wide curriculum range.

The high class sizes in the 'core' subjects which were studied for the majority of the students' time enabled a wider offering of those elective subjects which enrolled relatively few students.

The class size and contact-time structure at Palmer reflected an educational philosophy that had guided the school since its opening. Specifically, the statement of school philosophy advocated amongst other things that

- students should be given opportunities in self-direction and self-selection of study topics; and
- teachers should provide work which is fitted to the individual needs, interests and abilities of students.

To achieve these aims the school had incorporated a wide curriculum and a wide amount of student choice of electives. Palmer High School had many classes which were higher than the teacher union guidelines (25 maximum in the lower school and 20 maximum in the upper school). The very small classes (for example only three students engaged in music theory) had to be balanced by very large classes. The principal believed the staff accepted this, as well as their high teaching loads, because they favoured the present range and balance of the curriculum and had been able to participate in decisions about the structure. Had they strongly objected the democratic decision-making structure at

the school provided the means for seeking changes. The pattern of class sizes varied a little from the main school to the smaller Mixed Faculty School; on average core classes in Years 8 to 10 were around 30 (ranging from 27 to 33). Some timetabling problems in the lower years had resulted in large sizes of some art and technical classes (classes of 22 where 16 was recommended were not uncommon) and the increase in Year 9 enrolments above expectation had also created some problems at that level.

One possible advantage that the school had concerning the upper school timetable was that retention rates were high (being over 50 per cent from Year 11 to 12 and about 45 per cent from Year 8 to 12) and well above the state average. In some ways this had assisted in the timetabling at the upper school but, weighed against this, the provision of an alternative program at Year 11 with a maximum ratio of 1:15 was somewhat costly on resources.

The principal felt the school had reached an upper limit with respect to class sizes and given staff cuts likely to take effect in 1981 he expected it would be necessary to prune the range of offerings especially as teaching loads were at a limit. He was especially concerned that it would be the 'cultural' or 'caring' areas of the school with their low student-teacher ratios that would be reduced. The extent to which this would occur would depend largely on the extent to which staff would be prepared to adopt and take on the extra responsibilities.

Lindsay. At Lindsay, the education department specified fairly detailed guidelines concerning class and timetable organization, and although the school could deviate from such guidelines (and to some extent did so) they were important influences on school structures. With respect to class organization it was assumed:

- Year 8 students will be taught in class groups up to 32 students for all subjects except manual arts, home economics, art and craft, and drawing. The latter class sizes would be about 22 unless the size of the instructional centre precluded classes of this size.
- In Years 9 and 10 all subjects except options will be taken in class groups up to 32 students.
- The total number of Year 11 subject classes set up in the Year 11 grid can be either approximately six times the number of Year 11 form groups (if the school works on six-line grid organization) or approximately seven times the number of Year 11 form groups if the school is working on a seven-line grid organization.
- Similar assumptions as those adopted for Year 11 should apply to Year 12.

With respect to subject organization it was assumed that physical education classes would be timetabled in such a way that each teacher had a group approximately the same size as the form groups (32 in the lower school and 25 in the upper school), and with respect to options it was assumed that the number of options offered on any one grid line would be about 1.5 times the number of form groups going to those options at that time. In effect at Lindsay in the lower school physical education classes were formed with

approximately 24 students in each class and for other options an average class size of approximately 22 students resulted from the timetable organization. Departmental policy staffed alternative upper school programs on the basis of one to 20.

Principals were 'earnestly requested' to ensure that additional staff beyond the basic formula were not sought without significant justification. Nevertheless, there was a certain flexibility in the negotiation process: for 1981 Lindsay School requested more staff than the basic requirement and this request was mostly met. Reasons for the request varied from the constraints of the size of a pre-vocational centre and other plant constraints, the constraints on size that certain options placed (e.g. media and drama), the special timetabling that occurred in physical education which resulted in slightly smaller class sizes than suggested, the small music classes carried to keep the concert band viable, the retention of some marginally viable classes at the upper school, and the introduction of appropriate courses for the less academically able students.

The guidelines listed affected the organization at Lindsay. The school was organized on sub-school lines and in general had two guiding educational aims:

- to offer a wide, general education enabling considerable student choice; and
- to offer pastoral care through the sub-school organization.

The original hope for the sub-school organization was that all students from one sub-school would be taught for all subjects within that school by a common group of teachers. However, from early in the sub-schools' history, some adaptations of these aims were made to meet the views of some staff and to enhance a school policy of wide student choice of electives. These pressures were further affected by a period of reduced enrolments which no longer existed in 1981. Given the education department guidelines that a lower school option class should comprise about 22 students, it would have required a restricted number of options to enable these to be based within the sub-schools rather than across the whole school. The compromise was to adopt a system where option subjects in all years except Year 8 were taught across the school while core subjects were taught within sub-schools. In fact, in 1981 even the majority of Year 8 options was to be offered across the whole school because the structure in 1980 created imbalances in class sizes based on student choices, thereby creating timetabling problems through pressure on resources.

Class sizes at Lindsay were generally high because of the fairly high student-teacher ratio. However, the educational aims stressing pastoral care and general education had contributed towards this. The sub-school structure required that co-ordinators had increased non-contact time for their administrative and pastoral role, and the wide curriculum range meant that the smaller electives were counterbalanced with large core classes. The class sizes varied from 26 to 34 in the core subjects, the average being 31 in Year 8, 30 in Year 9 and 30 in Year 10. In the case of options, in

Years 8, 9 and 10, the average class sizes were 23.1, 17.6 and 17.0 respectively. Some of the option classes were necessarily small, either because of limitation of resources as in the case of the prevocational studies, transport, cooking and so on, or because the school had decided to carry low classes as in the case of languages and music. The principal and senior staff would decide at what point a class was viable but some classes of around 12 students or even less did exist and consequently others were considerably higher than average.

In the lower school there had been some deletion of options as enrolments decreased. In the upper school where numbers had decreased in certain subjects (e.g. French, art and Italian) the teachers grouped together Years 11 and 12 classes to avoid having to abandon a subject. These problems caused by declining numbers of students from one year to the next were especially noticeable in the language departments. Study of German, viable when a country hostel contributed students to the school, had been discontinued. Enrolments in French appeared to be declining and Italian was not yet viable for separate classes in Years 11 and 12. The major timetabling problems resulted from offering a language early in the school with a commitment to continue the provision through to Year 12 even if numbers had declined substantially.

One interesting feature of Lindsay School which had enabled small group instruction without 'extra' resources was the Remedial Reading Task Force scheme. It is worth elaborating on this scheme as it involved an interesting allocation of resources to meet a perceived need in the curriculum. Reading tests administered to Year 8 students showed that, in 1975 and 1976, 48 cent of students at Lindsay School were well below average with respect to reading ability; in 1977/1978 54 per cent; and in 1979/80 60 per cent. The Remedial Teaching Task Force evolved to meet this problem. At the beginning of the year all students were given a basic reading test and following results from this, students below a specified figure were later given a further diagnostic comprehension test. On the basis of this test a proportion of students (in 1980 it was about 65 students from an intake of about 250) was designated for special assistance from the remedial teachers while a smaller group of students was designated for the assistance of the Task Force. The Task Force initially comprised teachers who voluntarily gave up two of their non-teaching periods to undertake the scheme. However, this scheme was altered somewhat and in 1980 staff without a full timetable were allotted to the Task Force. While ensuring a more equitable work load, this procedure ran the risk of involving teachers with less commitment to the scheme than in the case of volunteer leaders. About six teachers were involved with groups of four to six students and each student was taken for four periods per week. The scheme had built up over the years and students apparently no longer saw the scheme as one for 'failed' or 'bad' students. Students in Years 8 and 9 would come on a sub-school basis but in Year 10 the groups were mixed across the sub-schools. Students not originally timetabled on the

Table 7.7 Enrolment Data for Term 1, 1980 at Kendall College

Faculty	Accredited units[a]			Registered units[b]		
	Average class size	Number of classes	Number of units	Average class size	Number of classes	Number of units
English[c]	21.3	35	25	8.0	10[d]	4
Mathematics	18.8	36	12	-	-	-
Computing Studies	17.0	4	2	-	-	-
Science	19.5	41	16	5.0	5	3
Social Science	17.5	15	12	-	-	-
History/Behavioural Science	18.9	21	15	7.5	2	2
Language/Office Studies/Music	14.0	21	18	-	-	-
Technology/Art Food/Textiles	12.9	20	15	11.6	5	4
Physical Education	13.3	6	5	13.1	15	12
Total	18.0	199	120	10.1	37	25

a Units accredited by tertiary organizations.
b Units devised at college level.
c Including drama and media studies.
d Small classes were held for efficient reading.

program might be involved on the recommendations of teachers.

Kendall. At Kendall College, the teachers association policy advocated a maximum allowed class size of 25, and no class exceeded this. Enrolment data for Term 1 1980 have been recorded in Table 7.7. It was college practice for an executive meeting to examine closely the viability of units in which enrolments were lower than 14. However, there were some areas in which smaller class sizes would be allowed as a matter of college policy. For example, in technology and food studies units smaller classes would be allowed because of the limitations imposed by the equipment available and the room design. The size of the room also limited enrolments in horticulture units. Studies in languages and music were supported as a matter of college policy so that a reasonable range of subjects could be sustained. As a consequence class sizes in English, mathematics and science were generally a little larger than average.

The interesting facet of Kendall College was that it was able to create small class sizes within the general educational philosophy of providing for wide student choice. With the establishment of senior colleges in this system it was intended that they should provide options suited to those who wished to continue to advanced education, to those who might pursue other forms of further education, to those who wished to pursue non-vocational cultural and creative studies, and to those who wished to undertake various combinations of these three categories.

At Kendall three factors led to the ability of the college to provide a wide subject range and still keep class sizes low:

(a) the school was amongst the most generously staffed schools visited;

(b) student enrolments in Years 11 and 12 were high because the catchment area was wider than for a six year school;

(c) students in Years 11 and 12 were not separately treated, rather they were viewed as one block taking different units from within common courses. In this way, the number of students to be grouped in classes was greater.

Lawson. At Lawson, interestingly, there was little difference in the size of classes at the different year levels. In the system in which Lawson was located, the education department devolved decisions on class sizes to schools and at Lawson allocation was based on a maximum of 30 (but planned for 28) and a minimum of 15. In practical subjects where there were room size and equipment constraints, or where educational considerations suggested it was appropriate, a size of 20 to 22 students was planned. In science units class sizes of 24 to 26 were planned. It was expected smaller classes would occur in remedial and enrichment units.

At Year 11 and Year 12, the capacity of a school to offer a wide range of subjects without some very small classes was in part dependent upon the retention rate of the school. There were 72 Year 11 and 46 Year 12 students at Lawson. Retentivity figures were estimated to be just above average for government secondary schools in Australia. It would seem that the economy in class sizes in the upper school at Lawson had been achieved, at least in part, by the linking of some Year 10/11 classes and some Year 11/12 classes. In the middle school the mean class size included some very small special classes in remedial English (5), remedial mathematics (10), a special unit for gifted children (13) and some relatively small classes in practical subjects. On the other hand, there were some larger classes containing up to 30 students. Class sizes at Lawson were fairly high compared with other schools visited: this reflected in part the overall student:teacher ratio, but also the wide subject choice at the school and the extent of non-contact time available either generally or as a result of specific duties allocated to specific people. To the extent that some of this non-contact time was allocated to guidance duties in the sub-schools, the relatively large teaching groups were a trade-off for this activity and, therefore, reflected the educational philosophy of the school.

Dennis. At Dennis Technical School it has already been noted how the union guidelines affected non-contact time. Similarly, with respect to influences and constraints regarding the formation of classes, among the most important was the policy of the teachers association regarding the size of classes. The school had adopted policies which resulted in most classes being at, or smaller than, the maximum class size specified. However, it appeared that to achieve this within the total allocation of staff to the school, sacrifices had to be made in the time allowed for heads of department to manage their departments, for year level co-ordinators to attend to student welfare, and for some specialist teachers to attend solely to their special duties.

In Years 7 and 8, all students studied a common set of subjects, and were in the same class for all lessons. There were eight classes at Year 7 giving an average class size of approximately 20.8. At Year 8 there were seven classes containing 20.0 students on average. In Year 9 students were allocated to classes for core subjects: the eight classes had an average enrolment of 19.5. However students chose three or four electives under guidance from staff: the average size of these groups was 20.3. Students in Year 10 formed eight classes for core subjects which averaged 19.9 students: for electives the average class size was 19.4 though some variation existed with one class being as large as 24. For Year 11 the eight classes of students in the core areas contained an average of 19.1 students while in the elective area the average size of the teaching groups was 15.3.

At Dennis, in common with many other schools, special provision was made for remedial education and for migrant education. There was a remedial education centre staffed by two remedial teachers who worked with very small groups of students on both a withdrawal basis and a support basis for teachers in classes. A similar arrangement occurred in the migrant education centre.

In summary, at Dennis it can be seen that the student groupings were generally of similar size both between the core and elective subjects within each year level, and between year levels. The exception was that smaller groupings were formed for elective studies in Year 11. Many staff members believed it necessary to have smaller classes for the practical subjects at this level. Indeed it was often argued that while classes at Dennis were generally small, classes in practical subjects needed to be smaller still to enable adequate supervision of the practical work done by students.

Richardson. At Richardson, the generous staffing entitlement for this small school allowed small class sizes to be formed throughout the school. Nevertheless, class sizes for subjects varied considerably. At the lowest level, there existed a class of five students in Year 12, and the principal considered that this was the lowest size acceptable. The largest class in the school was 25 (in English) with the average being between 15 and 20. The principal believed that the new timetable system (a line structure) enabled the school to use teachers more efficiently (for example all science could be timetabled at the same time) and consequently enabled him to optimize class sizes. He accepted, however, that some class sizes at lower year levels were large. One of the teachers, on the other hand, noted that some of the science classes in the upper school were very small, possibly too small as there was not enough peer competition. The evidence at Richardson was that more resources had been put into the upper school at the expense of Year 7. Even so the class sizes at all year levels were generally small.

As a result of a co-operative evaluation at the school in the recent past there had been some criticism of the class sizes operating at certain levels in certain subjects. In

Table 7.8 Size of English Classes, Years 7 to 9, Brennan High School, 1980

	Year 7	Year 8	Year 9
General activity class	21	16	11
Average of all other English classes	24.2	25.3	30

the 'practical arts', amongst the problems noted was the large size of some art classes especially in Year 8. The principal had recognized the problem: in 1980 the greater proportion of girls entering the school had increased the problem. Class sizes would have been too small for (and in any case staff availability would not have allowed) the grouping of students into three classes and the resultant grouping into two classes involved large classes.

Brennan. At Brennan School, a declared disadvantaged school, some extra staffing had enabled class sizes to be kept a little lower than average for that system (Ainley, 1982). Nevertheless the groupings were, compared with the other schools visited, fairly high. The education department staffing formulae and guidelines had affected school organization. The education department indicated that, in a classified disadvantaged secondary school, class sizes in Years 7 to 10 need not exceed 28 (compared with 30 for other secondary schools), and that in Years 11 and 12 the corresponding maximum class size for all secondary schools was 25 students. With only a few exceptions at Year 9 level, these class size guidelines were followed at Brennan.

For most subjects, students at Brennan were grouped according to ability levels. As far as possible, the lower ability classes were smaller than other classes as illustrated in Table 7.8 which shows the size of the general activity class and the classes formed for English in Years 7 to 9. Although not as marked as the case of the general activity class, the class sizes of the other groups designated as low ability were also lower than those applying to the higher ability groups. As can be seen from the table, the positive discrimination (in terms of class size) towards the general activity classes became more marked in the higher year levels. This practice could reflect the view that, because of some transfer of students from the general activity class to other classes as the students progressed from Year 7 to Year 8 and from Year 8 to Year 9, those remaining in the general activity class at Year 9 would be the students with the most severe learning difficulties, and accordingly would require the most intensive teaching. The peculiar characteristics of Brennan School, with its large number of students with language difficulties, had led to a structure being adopted which put more resources into this area. The lower class sizes for the low ability groups were one reflection of this.

Also, Table 7.6 revealed that teaching resources at Brennan were not spread equally between the year levels: the three 'resource rich' groups being Years 11 and 12, and to a lesser extent Year 7. Such a result is not entirely unexpected given the

distribution of enrolments between the year levels and the nature of the teaching program. Years 11 and 12 between them provided only one-eighth of the total school enrolment and, as such, to offer those students a broad curriculum to prepare them for tertiary studies or employment would inevitably necessitate the creation of a large number of relatively small classes at those levels. In the case of Year 7, the operation of relatively small classes and strong remedial literacy programs would help to explain its comparatively higher level of teacher resources per student.

Summary

The balance between non-contact time and class sizes is inevitably a complicated relationship between the constraints operating on schools and their perceived educational philosophies. Where education department guidelines or union recommendations were rigid, the schools visited deviated little from them and in some cases were surprisingly inflexible. Similarly, the staffing formulae applied to schools provided the overall framework within which schools operated. Schools in 'resource poor' systems may have fairly large class sizes but they may have been far more flexible in their internal organization in an attempt to meet educational objectives.

The question of the appropriate balance of staff between year levels is difficult for schools to resolve, particularly in a period of static student:teacher ratios where expanding teaching resources at one level may necessitate contracting them at another. This problem is exacerbated at certain schools where the senior enrolments are small, either in reflection of the large number of students who leave school during or after completion of Year 10, or because of the size of the school. At such schools, although it is the great majority of students in Years 10 and below who have to be the principal focus of the school's concern, to serve adequately the needs of Years 11 and 12 students it is necessary to maintain a wide curriculum choice at that level which diverts teaching resources away from the junior and intermediate years. In this sense Brennan, for example, was very much two schools in one: a traditional school serving the academic needs of a relatively small group of students while at the same time it was an innovative school attempting to cater for the social as well as intellectual needs of a large group of students with learning difficulties. Under these circumstances, the debate about the appropriate allocation of teacher resources may become very intense, a debate that without sacrificing any of the teaching program can only be resolved by the acquisition of more resources. It is considerations such as those which would have prompted the enthusiastic response of the school to the opportunities offered by the Disadvantaged Schools Program to obtain additional resources, at least in the areas of physical resources and non-teaching support staff.

Although the issue of the balance between the junior and senior levels of a school may be more pertinent in a school like Brennan with its low retention rate (of the 1979

Year 10 class of 160 students only 38 per cent, compared with a state average of 45 per cent, proceeded to Year 11), it is an issue in all schools wanting to provide the necessary range of activities for a fairly small group of students near to leaving school. The alternative programs developed at Palmer and Lindsay necessitated fairly low student:teacher ratios as did the general program at Years 11 and 12. The college model, which views student enrolments in Years 11 and 12 and which employs a unit system as one block, may require some consideration. It would seem that in this system a general education with wide student choice could be adopted without forfeiting class sizes or non-contact time. At Palmer and Lindsay, where a similar educational philosophy was expounded, the structures inevitably produced resource pressures, in part because of the upper/lower school conflict.

In another context, the case study visits could not fail to raise the issue of the appropriate means of staffing schools. At Palmer, the educational system appeared to have created a paradox in its approach. At one time, it not only encouraged schools to develop an educational philosophy suited to their needs but was also prepared to over-staff somewhat to achieve this. However, at a later stage, it took away the over-staffing entitlement despite the fact that this could only result in changes in curriculum offerings and, therefore, a reduction in the potential of the school to meet such aims. Whether the concept of 'needs based' staffing should be extended or whether the concept of a 'basket of services', over which schools have the power to make decisions, should be introduced is worth consideration. These issues are addressed at later stages of this report.

School Management Functions

Earlier in this chapter, it was noted that the extent of staff involvement in such issues was related to the amount of freedom from class teaching. Generally, in the primary schools, the executive staff had the predominant role in school management. In secondary schools, without denying the importance of executive personnel appointed for school management purposes, there is a greater capacity for all staff to become involved in such activities as a result of greater non-contact time. In fact, it is accepted practice that senior teachers in secondary schools have increased non-contact time in response to the necessity of such staff to be involved in duties connected to the guidance and teaching activities of staff in their faculty or department. In addition, the school may decide to organize its teaching duties to provide other staff with increased non-contact time for other school management functions. In this respect, the school is making a judgment about the priorities of school activities.

Management functions in small schools. At Paterson District High School, in the secondary area of the school (with 75 students) only the principal was assigned to the school to perform an executive role and even he was involved in taking mathematics

classes. The non-contact time allocated to class teachers was assumed to cover the class-related management function (that was preparation and correction etc.). However, in a district high school where teachers often take a number of subjects, this can be a considerable work load. At district high schools, also, teachers in general have more school management duties than in larger secondary schools because teachers have to act as quasi senior masters or mistresses in their subjects and teachers are far more likely to be involved in activities such as organizing camps or magazines, activities which in other schools might come under the duties of specialist staff.

At Richardson (a school of about 250 students), only the principal and senior mistress were formally allocated to the school for executive duties and they taught four and seven hours per week respectively. The three subject master positions available in 1979 had been lost as a result of a change in staffing policies and therefore the extra non-contact time available for 'faculty' or department activities was no longer present. At its own discretion, the school had, in 1980, provided the one teacher who had been a subject master in 1979 (and had remained at the school following the change in regulations) with a reduced load so he could continue these duties. It was considered, however, that in 1981 this could not continue. Consequently, teachers who would normally have used their non-contact time for class-related management spent more time in co-operative activities to perform subject master roles.

The principal felt the necesssity for additional support in school management areas. The senior mistress's teaching load had been reduced during the year but the principal still believed there was a need for other support particularly in the area of curriculum development and organization. In response to the 1979 schools survey questionnaire, he expressed the need for subject masters and in discussions he also advocated, in addition to the need for extra administrative assistance, a role for a deputy principal responsible for curriculum areas. Present staffing formulae did not allow subject masters or deputy principals to be allocated and it was expected that the senior mistress would fulfil a deputy's role.

There are two issues arising from the situation described at Paterson and Richardson. First, are such schools adequately served by the extent of allocation of members of staff to executive duties and, secondly, are the types of staff members allocated to such schools suitable to perform the varied duties required of them? In the case of the first issue, the point is whether executive duties in schools are linearly related to their size: it is accepted that large schools have more such duties than small schools but there is a level of administrative work that is involved in all schools. The indication from the study was that in those schools with very limited administrative support (Paterson and to some extent Richardson) the staffing formulae of the two systems did not adequately cover such needs. At both schools, the prime need was felt to be in the area of the curriculum, but more general administrative duties were also

considered to be onerous. To an extent, the system may attempt to remedy this by additional access of such schools to departmental (regional or central) advisers. At Paterson, the subject advisers' visits were considered to be very important. Nevertheless, these can only provide a limited amount of assistance compared with the ongoing advice that is available in larger schools staffed with subject masters, deputy principals and other specialist staff.

If it is assumed that the formulae guiding allocation cannot be adjusted to meet these perceived needs then the characteristics of the staff in such schools become very important. There are perhaps two major characteristics of staff in district high schools which affect school organization. One, the high staff turnover, affects both primary and secondary areas and the other, staff qualifications and aptitudes, is probably more pertinent at the secondary level. District high schools located in fairly isolated locations suffer high staff turnover. Generally staff members only stay the two years that the education department require as a minimum and then move to another school. Consequently, there is a great disruption to the school organization, in particular in the secondary area where options may be offered one year and withdrawn the next. With respect to the staff qualifications and aptitudes, it was often believed in district high schools that it was the less experienced teachers who were sent to the schools whereas the demands of the position especially in the secondary area required more experienced teachers, able to offer a range of options and able to provide leadership in subject areas.

There were also certain characteristics of the staff members at Richardson School which affected the organization and running of the school. The teaching staff (and also the ancillary staff) of the school were fairly well established: teacher turnover had been less than 10 per cent per annum for some time. As a result, the average age and experience of the teaching staff were greater than the state average and there existed close professional and social interaction among the members of staff. A proportion of the teachers had accepted the area around the school as a desirable location and consequently had set aside promotion ambition if this were to require transfer to another area. The principal noted that the effect of low staff turnover on the school was advantageous, since the school had an experienced group of teachers who were committed and co-operative in their professional role within Richardson School, a situation that would not always exist in remote small schools.

Management functions in medium-sized schools. At Lawson School, which operated a sub-school structure, there had also developed lines of responsibility and involvement which differed somewhat from the more traditionally organized schools. There were co-ordinators for the three sub-schools, faculty co-ordinators (neither of whom had to be senior staff but who usually were) and a staff co-ordinator who was a senior teacher. At Lawson, most of the time of the principal and the deputy principal, about half the time of two senior teachers and one-quarter of the time of two other

senior teachers was allocated to school management duties. In addition, school management occupied one-sixth of the time of the faculty co-ordinators, the majority of the time of the specialist student welfare co-ordinator, teacher librarians, careers teacher, and a small fraction of the time of the other teachers. The principal and deputy principal performed the normal executive functions common to those positions in other secondary schools. Co-ordinators supervised the progress of students in the sub-schools and co-ordinated the development of curricula by the faculties. One senior teacher was the staff co-ordinator who assumed responsibility for timetabling, for co-ordination of the three sub-schools, and for ensuring that the curriculum was implemented as intended. Faculty co-ordinators were responsible for management of the faculty areas, ensuring that appropriate units and curricula were developed and revised, and overseeing the studies undertaken by students within the faculty. The faculty co-ordinator was also responsible for the allocation of staff to teaching particular units.

Other teachers for whom a great deal of time was allocated to the school management category were the careers teacher, the student-welfare co-ordinator, and the teacher librarian. The careers teacher had a very small teaching involvement and was largely involved in organizing the work experience program, in counselling students and liaising with potential employers of school students. The student-welfare co-ordinator also had a small teaching load, the main duties comprising counselling of students, community liaison, identifying areas where school policy needed to be developed and managing social services. Probably the major part of the time available was consumed in counselling students and in the related liaison with parents and referral to other agencies, but also important was the support provided for home groups through the suggestion of activities in which home group teachers might engage.

The establishment of a sub-school structure both at Lawson and Lindsay seemed to necessitate the development of co-ordinators' roles to oversee the welfare and guidance of students within the schools, and the integration of that sub-school with the school as a whole. The exception to this was the initiation of the small sub-school at Palmer which operated without any formal co-ordinating role. The co-ordination here was achieved as teachers in the sub-school would attend faculty meetings throughout the school as well as staff policy meetings of the school.

It was, however, not only schools with sub-school structures that had seen the necessity to develop co-ordinator roles. At Dennis, for example, teachers appointed as year level co-ordinators played an important role in the implementation of school policy. In August 1980, there were two co-ordinators at each of Years 7 and 9, and one at each of Years 8, 10 and 11. Year level co-ordinators received four hours per week time allocation to fulfil their co-ordination duties. Co-ordinators managed the allocation of students to classes (which would involve counselling students about their choice of elective subjects), were involved in matters of discipline and would be the first

point of responsibility for student welfare (which would involve the monitoring of students' progress, reporting on students with problems, and organizing contact with parents). In addition, the co-ordinators conducted a meeting with all students from the year level each week. All the year level co-ordinators believed that the time allowed for the duties involved was not sufficient. It seemed that the welfare role of the co-ordinators had expanded but that their role in educational leadership and curriculum co-ordination had not been able to grow because of time constraints. Some redistribution of this load might have been possible had there been a student-welfare co-ordinator on the school staff in a full-time capacity.

At Dennis, neither the principal nor the two vice-principals had formal teaching allocations, though each taught classes on some occasions. The role of these staff members was primarily school management. One of the two vice-principals was responsible, as part of this role, for staff development activities which were mainly concerned with the provision of guidance and assistance to individual teachers. One senior teacher also acted principally in a management role co-ordinating activities on the smaller of the two sites on which Dennis was located. Few heads of department were senior teachers but most were teachers who received a special duties allowance and some time concession. Even though the system of allowances provided a monetary recompense for the extra duties involved, there remained a problem of time. As noted earlier, senior teachers had teaching loads just two hours per week less than a full-time teaching allotment plus the same reduction in non-teaching duties. Those who were not senior teachers had a two hour per week reduction in non-teaching duties. Several people in these positions considered that they did not have sufficient time for the management aspects of their role. A view was expressed that the existing arrangement spread administrative responsibilities across a wider range of staff and led to more collegiate responsibility. Even so, it appeared that generally heads of department had insufficient time for their management duties.

The school also had several teachers employed in specialist functions, although some of these staff members would teach classes on a regular basis in addition to their special duties. The careers teacher spent a large amount of time engaged in direct vocational counselling, helped to organize a work experience program, as well as teach classes in another subject. The camping co-ordinator was responsible for organizing the extensive program of school camps and, in addition, taught several classes on a regular basis. There were two teacher librarians who managed the library and provided educational assistance for students using the library.

At Brennan School, as at Dennis, the importance of year level co-ordination was stressed. The school had a school executive which was a group of eight senior staff members comprising the principal, the deputy principal and six subject co-ordinators each of whom was classified in a promotional position. As well as providing the principal

administrative input to the subject departments, executive members played an important role in the administration of year levels. Each of the six year levels was allocated both an executive member who co-ordinated administrative issues across that year level and a year-level welfare co-ordinator who was principally responsible for student welfare matters at that level.

The six subject co-ordinators, all of whom were senior staff and members of the school executive, were responsible for the general administration and oversight of a particular subject department or, in the case of one co-ordinator, two small subject departments. In the main the co-ordinators managed departments in their own area of subject expertise even though the case was advanced that there may be advantages in rotating subject department responsibility amongst senior staff in order to expose them to a broader view of the school as well as encouraging fresh thinking within departments.

At Kendall College, there were three assistant principals in addition to the principal. While the principal was responsible for the administration of the college, the three assistant principals each had specific areas of responsibility and were responsible for the day-to-day organization of the college. One was responsible for matters concerned with curriculum and the moderation of assessment. Designated as the assistant principal (curriculum), that person took responsibility for the development and review of all courses within the college and ensured that assessment practices conformed to college policy. Another of these positions was designated as the assistant principal (staff), who was responsible for ensuring that the timetable was properly structured so that students could pursue the courses they wished, and so that staff members were deployed in such a way as to service those courses effectively. The third assistant principal was designated as the assistant principal (students), whose prime responsibility was to provide curriculum guidance to students. Given the total number of different categories of teachers at the school and the teaching loads allocated, there were 1049 teacher hours available for allocation each week. Nine per cent (92 hours) of this time was allocated to administrative, counselling, and advisory functions additional to the group advisory sessions which involved about 18 teacher hours per week. A further 48 hours of teacher time was allocated to library management, constituting an extra five per cent of time. In effect, the principal and staff had decided to use available teacher time in this way rather than decrease average class size by 10 per cent.

The staff at Kendall College were involved in school management issues through their involvement in the democratic decision-making machinery at the school. Also, each teacher was responsible for an advisory group which met for about 20 minutes each week. Individual consultation with students about courses and maintaining students' records of progress in courses was managed by a group working under the direction of the assistant principal (students). The group consisted of one school counsellor (0.8 equivalent full-time), a full-time careers teacher and four other teachers who each spent

one-quarter of their time in this group. The advisory network at Kendall is discussed in more detail in Chapter 9.

The faculty, as in other schools, was in fact a key unit in the organization. It was the responsibility of faculties to plan the units and courses to be offered in accord with the resources available to them. At faculty level, the senior teacher and staff determined the units to be offered each term and predicted the number of classes likely to be needed for each unit. They planned the special requirements associated with each unit so that clashes with other studies could be avoided. Faculties would also determine the detailed allocation of staff to the teaching of particular units and were responsible for course development, course reaccreditation and a great deal of staff development.

School management in large schools. At Lindsay, the sub-school structure designed to enhance the pastoral emphasis of the school brought with it certain implications for the allocation of school-management duties. These are discussed in more detail in Chapter 9 concerning pastoral provision in schools, but briefly the structure involved a number of non-executive staff or non-senior staff in school management functions. As a result, in addition to the school management functions performed by the executive staff, co-ordinators and other staff had been delegated a great deal of responsibility in the administrative/welfare area. Some dissatisfaction about the status of the sub-school co-ordinator's role was expressed. The view was put that the job required a great deal of time yet the position did not have the status of a senior master or mistress despite the important responsibilities of co-ordinators. Another source of internal conflict expressed by sub-school co-ordinators was the relationship between the pastoral and discipline roles allocated both to contact class teachers and co-ordinators. One co-ordinator considered that, although he should be kept informed about discipline issues, he should not himself be involved in that function. An alternative view was that in the supportive environment of the sub-schools disciplinary measures were 'cushioned' somewhat. In addition, although it was seen at the school as a good thing that the less senior staff were able to gain the opportunity to have this administrative responsibility, it had at times created tensions when the sub-school activities had encroached on subject departmental teaching and when there had been a vagueness about overall lines of responsibility. It would seem that on balance, at present, the system operated without a great deal of friction between personnel within the hierarchical structures.

Apart from the senior teachers with their departmental responsibilities, other teachers for whom a great deal of time was allocated to the school management category at Lindsay were the youth education officer (who had responsibility for organizing work experience, camps, career education initiatives and a driver education program for Years 11 and 12), the guidance officer (who was involved in educational, vocational and personal guidance for students), and the teacher librarians.

At Palmer, there were three deputies and a principal allocated to the school for executive duties (the deputies taught on average only 3 or 4 hours a week). These four staff members operated in a collegiate fashion with much sharing of duties. However, some broad duties were specified: one deputy was responsible for the timetable and Year 12 student-teacher relationships, another was responsible for school-community liaison, truancy and primary school liaison, and the third was the curriculum co-ordinator and responsible for day-to-day management issues. All three shared discipline and staff support duties. Although at Palmer special positions such as school or year level co-ordinators had not been appointed, the decision-making structures at the school, which are described in a later chapter, enabled considerable involvement of all staff in school management.

The faculty groups, although only having representative input into school-wide policy decisions, were very important in the initiation of policy with respect to their own teaching areas. The development of curricula, the allocation of teachers and students to classes, the suggestion of teaching styles and an input into timetabling were all aspects that involved faculties. This involvement could be initiated via administrative staff (for example the deputy responsible for timetabling) or via committees (especially the curriculum committee) or it could take the form of independent action. It appeared also that the presence of faculty administration offices encouraged this independence of action.

Much of the staff involvement in school management was through the faculties and staff council committees. No extra time was available for this and as a result the decision-making activities often occurred outside of school hours or were taken from the normal non-contact time available to staff. At Palmer, the teachers did not have much free time and as a result the school management functions were a fairly onerous addition, albeit a voluntary one.

Summary

In secondary schools the extra non-contact time available to teachers had enabled a greater involvement in school management duties than in primary schools. This took various forms:

- the establishment of special positions within the school such as sub-school or year level co-ordinators;
- the general involvement through the decision-making structures within the school (such as curriculum committees);
- the use of specialist staff such as youth education officers or student welfare co-ordinators.

These forms could be initiated either within the normal non-contact guidelines outlined for schools (as was the case at Kendall, Palmer and Brennan), or could be initiated with

extra staffing assistance from the education department (as was the case at Lindsay) or could be initiated through the internal manipulation of school resource allocation policies (as was the case at Dennis, Lindsay again, and Lawson).

In many instances the necessity for increased involvement of staff in these structures reflected an educational philosophy. Generally this required the use of non-executive staff as well as executive staff. At Lindsay, education department regulations required that sub-school co-ordinators were not to be senior teachers. In other schools the involvement of staff in such areas reflected the democratic ethos of the school. Consequently, then, the pattern of involvement of staff in 'extra-teaching' duties reflected the aims of the school. However, it did have interesting implications for staff training. Teachers are generally trained for a teaching role not an administrative or welfare role. There were indications in one or two schools that the welfare role being allocated to teachers was not found easy to handle. With respect to staff allocation to schools this, once again, also raises the question of the most appropriate balance of staff. Should schools be given discretion to choose between, say, a class teacher and a student welfare co-ordinator in accordance with school philosophy?

At small schools like Paterson and Richardson the issues were very different. Here the lack of senior teachers to provide curriculum guidance and the limited amount of executive staff available for administrative duties placed heavy demands on teachers. Even with the assistance of education departments, through advisory visits and the like, there was a lack of facilities to cover these roles. The issue here becomes a question of whether this should be tackled by a preferential staffing formula or a special staff allocation. At Richardson in fact the student:teacher ratio was very favourable but it was only favourable with respect to general class teachers. There were no subject masters or mistresses, no deputy principals and no specialist staff. At Richardson it might well be argued that a trade-off between class teachers and other types of teachers might well benefit the school in meeting its perceived problems.

If however the problems were not addressed through a change in the criteria for allocating teachers to schools, it might well be argued that a careful selection of staff for particular schools is needed. The problem here, of course, is that teachers may not wish to serve at those schools considered most in need of a special allocation. At Richardson, the loss of the subject masters had in part been counterbalanced by the fact that staff there were experienced as they had chosen to stay in a desirable location rather than seek promotions elsewhere. At other schools this is less likely to be so. At remote district high schools, for example, turnover is very high. Nevertheless, the evidence from the visit to Paterson very strongly points to the need for a careful selection of staff for small schools. Teachers at such schools are quasi-heads of departments, are involved in other school management functions and may teach a very wide range of subjects. Also, on a personal and social level, life at such schools can be

demanding on young teachers. The principal at Paterson felt that what were needed at such schools were fairly young and enthusiastic teachers with some experience. Once again, more flexibility to meet specific needs was the argument being advocated.

It was interesting that in a number of the larger schools visited the importance of co-ordination of school activities was stressed. Where sub-schools cross year level boundaries, the need is to ensure that there is co-ordination across the different schools and, where schools are traditionally organized, there is a need to ensure co-ordination from one year to the next. The manner in which co-ordination was achieved was varied but it always involved a fairly substantial resource component.

The previous sections have highlighted the relationship already discussed that exists between the range of curriculum offerings, educational philosophies, class sizes and non-contact time. Given a school's fixed resources, changes in one area or emphases on certain aspects invariably affect the other areas. To an extent schools can negotiate for a little extra to meet specific needs, as was the case at Lindsay, but in normal circumstances, where schools have to make decisions concerning priorities, they are in a better position to make them if they have flexibility in the type of staff available. The relationship between curricula range and class sizes is discussed in more detail in later chapters.

CHAPTER 8

THE INVOLVEMENT OF ANCILLARY STAFF, STUDENTS AND THE COMMUNITY IN THE SCHOOL PROGRAM

In Chapter 7 the allocation of teachers to different duties in schools was discussed. Teaching staff, however, are not the only resources available to schools. Most schools have allocated to them, as part of the staffing formulae of the education systems, ancillary staff such as teacher aides, laboratory assistants, library assistants, home economics assistants, clerks, accountants, caretakers and the like. The use made of such staff varies from one school to the next. In addition, some schools make considerable use of community personnel (for example parents of students) in the school program, and some other schools even make use of their own students in forms of cross-age tutoring or peer group tutoring. This chapter is concerned therefore with those persons who work in schools and who are not classed as teachers.

Review of Research

A number of research studies have examined the issues related to the involvement of ancillary staff or community personnel in schools. Beck and Goodridge (1978) have reviewed schemes of community involvement in 15 schools which were funded by the Schools Commission Innovations Program. The purpose of the study was to draw together the experiences of 15 school projects in an attempt to enhance understanding of the means by which schools may develop closer ties with their communities. The authors commented on these schemes:

> The projects observed in this study exemplified several aspects of community involvement, and project directors were able to mention a number of benefits that accrued to both students and parents as a result of their interaction. A number of problems also were identified, and these were sufficiently cogent to indicate that those who make unqualified pleas for community involvement in schools may be lacking in practical experience.
>
> Nevertheless, there are reasons why schools should be oriented towards the community, and the limitations appear to be mainly practical ones. (Beck and Goodridge, 1978:2)

The long list of problems outlined by Beck and Goodridge were considered to be constraints that have to be taken into account and not arguments against involvement of the community. On balance they argued strongly for involvement of community personnel.

With respect to cross-age or peer group tutoring in schools, although there has been an increasing research literature, as yet there is little which can usefully assist in providing firm program guidelines to schools or to education departments (Bloom, 1978).

With respect to the involvement of students in the school program Mayes (1978) has discussed the innovative use of cross-age tutoring at Richmond Technical College in Victoria. This project evolved both from a previous scheme at Brunswick Girls High School (Holdsworth, 1975) and from the work of an Education Task Force established at the college and given a brief which had as its main aim:

> . to examine the needs of students and suggest programs which would best cater for those needs.

The Task Force considered compensatory programs but argued that such programs tended to prevent students from demonstrating competence. For all students at the college it was contended that there was a need for them to be able to demonstrate actively academic or social competence. The cross-age tutoring program developed from this: the program was perceived as a way of providing students with a sense of responsibility towards helping others and a sense of purpose and useful participation. Mayes (1978) comments:

> In cross-age tutoring, there is a reversal of role for the student, from being the passive recipient of 'what's good for him', he suddenly becomes the 'expert'. He has responsibility, status in the eyes of other students, attention and reward from adults, and respect from younger children. All of this is likely to boost self-esteem compared with the conformity and passivity of the usual student role. (Mayes, 1978:4)

Another attractive feature of the concept is that it facilitates individualized instruction. Under normal organizational arrangements teachers have to put most of their time and effort into group teaching: student tutors just like parental tutors can help change this.

At Richmond the scheme operated as an elective called Teaching Studies and it provided also for opportunities to teach outside of school boundaries as well as for cross tutoring inside the school. The scheme enabled careful matching of students to 'tutees': for example, some Turkish speaking tutors were able to assist greatly some Turkish speaking tutees. For new overseas students this transition process was considered very successful. The arrangement of tutoring both inside and outside the school (Year 11 to Year 7) required careful matching of timetables. The scheme at Richmond had been funded by the Schools Commission and the bulk of expenditure went on the payment of tutors. Payment was intended to demonstrate to tutors the seriousness of the program. The payment element reputedly enhanced the program but it was thought it would still operate without payment, as evidenced from student attitudes. The program was subjected to an evaluation which like the earlier scheme at Brunswick School showed some very encouraging results:

> In the case of Year 8 tutors there appears to have been a marked improvement in literacy skills as a direct result of the cross-age tutoring program. Numeracy skill development in Year 7 under-achieving students appears to have been as a direct

result of being tutored. Apart from the objective evidence of academic improvement produced by the program, there is considerable amount of subjective evidence of positive social, emotional and attitude development, in students involved with the program. (Mayes, 1978:59)

The idea of one child tutoring another is not new but Boraks and Allen (1977) contend that cross-age tutoring is a more common situation than peer-group tutoring. They argue that, whatever the type of tutoring program, an essential element is the training of child tutors. Most training programs, they point out, have been tied to specific materials of a structured or programmed nature. Boraks and Allen point out that a small portion of the educational literature does refer to a less structured training approach (Frager and Stern, 1970) and to the benefits of peer as opposed to cross-age tutoring (Oakland and Williams, 1975). Boraks and Allen (1977) therefore attempted to develop such a program in elementary schools and their field test tentatively suggested the workability and promise of a peer group tutor program with non-programmed materials.

In a review of research into tutoring schemes, Devin-Sheehan, Feldman and Allen (1976) have noted that evidence supporting generalizations has been inconclusive: anecdotal reports rather than hard data have been gathered. Summarizing the research the authors make the following point:

> The programmed tutoring data have some interesting implications. First, a particular tutoring technique is effective with several different tutoring programs, which suggests that materials may be somewhat less important than method. Second, results were less positive when the subject matter being tutored changed from reading (the most commonly tutored subject) to mathematics. Tutoring may be particularly beneficial for certain subjects, and specific tutoring techniques may be more appropriate for some subjects than for others. Therefore, one should be aware that research findings from a reading program may not be duplicated in a mathematics or social studies tutoring program.
>
> Results of several tutoring techniques and programs indicate that tutoring can be beneficial to participating students. The extensive list of tutoring studies with nonsignificant findings (only a few of which were cited at the outset) points to an important question facing researchers and educators alike: What are the necessary or desirable elements in a successful tutoring program? (Devin-Sheehan, Feldman and Allen, 1976:364)

In reviewing evidence on these desirable elements, the authors list a number of findings:

- a very broad range of students may benefit from acting as a tutor;
- on academic criteria no differences were found between single or mixed sex pairings but evidence on attitudinal outcomes was mixed;
- the greater the age difference between tutor and tutee the better the performance of the tutee, although the nature of the interaction may be less pleasing;
- research on the characteristics of the tutoring situation (for example length of tutoring programs, number of tutees, training of tutees) was inconclusive;
- the relative level of competence between the tutor and tutee appears critical but research was inconclusive.

Table 8.1 Number of Ancillary Staff (Equivalent Full-time and Number per 1000 Students) of Different Types in Primary Schools, 1980

	Teacher aides		Library aides		Clerk/typists	
	E.F.T	No. per 1000	E.F.T	No. per 1000	E.F.T.	No. per 1000
Paterson	1.0	6.4	n.a.[a]	n.a.	1.0	4.3
Mansfield	0.4	1.8	n.a.	n.a.	0.6	2.7
Marsh	0.7	1.3	n.a.	n.a.	1.0	1.8
Pritchard	1.0	2.2	n.a.	n.a.	1.0	2.2
Clarke	5.0	4.5	1.0	0.9	1.0	0.9
Boldrewood	3.1	8.7	n.a.	n.a.	1.0	2.8
Rudd[b]	1.0	2.5	n.a.	n.a.	1.6	4.0
Franklin	4.3	8.3	0.3	0.6	0.9	1.7
Morant	n.a.	n.a.	0.2	1.3	0.5	3.2

a Not applicable.
b Excluding special education classes.

A more recent American study (Medway and Lowe, 1980) indicated that tutee and tutor effort rather than ability appeared to be a critical dimension in successful schemes. Paolitto (1976) has argued that the literature on cross-age tutoring has been hard to evaluate because it has omitted examination of the theoretical bases of prior programs. He contended that cross-age tutoring began as a practice rather than a concept: it involved imparting knowledge, assisting teachers in a resource way, increasing the tutor's knowledge and attitudes, and a number of other things.

Primary Schools

The Use of Ancillary Staff

Primary schools generally did not have available to them the range of ancillary staff that was available to secondary schools (see Ainley, 1982). The subject specialization that occurred in secondary schools had also led to some specialization in the allocation of aides: for example home economics assistants, laboratory assistants and audio-visual assistants might all be available to secondary schools. Excluding those personnel, such as caretakers and cleaners, who are not directly involved in the school's teaching program, primary schools often had only teacher aides allocated to them and these aides were expected to be involved in a number of varied duties.

Table 8.1 shows the number of ancillary staff allocated to the different schools. Although the table has separated library and teacher aides in line with the allocation of staff to the school, in some cases (as for example at Pritchard, Rudd, Boldrewood and Marsh) the teacher aides at the school would be allocated at least in part to library duties. In other situations teacher aides would be allocated specific duties related to certain school activities. At Paterson one of the two part-time aides worked solely in the pre-primary area and the other worked in the junior primary area. In both cases the

work involved close contact with children (reading, listening, involvement with games). Similarly, at Clarke School two teacher aides were allocated specifically for the pre-school centre. All aides were closely involved with students, but it was felt that in the pre-school centre the distinction between an aide and a teacher was least pronounced. At Clarke, with its large proportion of inexperienced teachers it was felt that the more experienced staff made the most use of aides and involved them in the most varied activities. At Franklin, three of the aides were specifically assigned to the kindergarten and parent child sessions. The other aides at the school had been employed at the discretion of the school with resources allocated by the Schools Commission. The school had decided that, of these three part-time appointments, one would work in the library, one in the infant section and one in the primary section of the school.

At Boldrewood, in addition to the two aides with responsibility for the library and special education unit there were three part-time aides and these had been allocated to each of the three units at the school. At this school, with the decreasing enrolment, ancillary staff entitlement had been reduced but the staff had decided that, instead of one person being laid off, each aide would take a reduction in the number of official hours worked. In practice the staff often worked far more hours than they were paid for.

At Rudd School, although there were two aides, one of the two aides was exclusively concerned with the special classes for impaired hearing. The other had general school-wide duties, which as noted earlier included the operation of the library, and also involved work closely related to students such as assistance in craft, correction, supervision. This supervising role of the teacher aide was even more important at Mansfield School where the part-time aide was often used to supervise classes when teachers had to be called out for specific purposes. At Morant School the part-time library aide was employed at a time to coincide with the presence of a teacher librarian at the school. No other aides were available in this very small school.

Generally, the work of teacher aides in the primary schools involved close contact with students, often in ways very similar to teachers' duties. This was especially the case in the pre-primary and junior areas of schools where greater use tended to be made of such staff. In the more senior areas the work tended to become more clerical (for example typing and duplicating). Although some aides in some schools had been allocated specific functions by the education department and were not expected to be involved in other duties (for example kindergarten aides and special education aides) on the whole schools had considerable discretion in the allocation of their duties. At Franklin the availability of funds that could be used to appoint staff was an interesting example of flexibility. The school could have used the money for teaching or ancillary staff, thereby leaving the school the decision about its priorities. In South Australia, New Zealand and the Australian Capital Territory schools were able to determine the configuration of their ancillary staff.

Most of the schools visited stressed the need for more aides and often the point was made that because too few were available they were allocated too much clerical as opposed to classroom duties. In small schools with only one such person this was often the case: this person was expected to be the librarian, classroom supervisor, first-aid assistant and classroom assistant all at the same time.

As Table 8.1 shows the general pattern for clerical assistance was for one full-time assistant to be allocated to each school. In the three very small schools (Morant, Mansfield and Paterson) the allocation was somewhat different. The one full time person at Paterson had duties across both secondary and primary areas of the school, and the other two schools only warranted a part-time assistant given their enrolments. In fact Morant had lost a full-time position following a period of declining enrolments. In the previous chapter the problem of providing administrative assistance to small schools was noted. There was no doubt in those schools where the principal taught either full-time or part-time, and where clerical assistance was only part-time, there was considerable administrative burden placed on the principal. At Rudd, the generous clerical provision was in part related to the allocation of secretarial assistance for the operation of the school council, an important body in that education system.

The Involvement of Students

Generally there was very little involvement of students in the school program. Such involvement could have taken the form of peer group or cross-age tutoring, or of assistance in the development of teaching or curriculum materials. Most of the schools visited operated composite classes but these were generally not used to generate cross-age tutoring. At Boldrewood, in fact, although the school was divided into three K-7 year level units to encourage interaction between students of different ages, the use of composite classes within those units reflected enrolment patterns or teacher wishes.

The only primary school which had placed a great priority on the involvement of students, and which had thought this through into particular practices in the school, was Mansfield. Every attempt was made to get close to children and to involve them in school activities, even to the extent of curriculum development. As an example, the school had developed its own handwriting scheme through the interaction of students in the senior forms and teachers in the learning situation. Students were asked to draw on their experiences with writing and to outline some of the problems they had encountered and some of the more useful strategies they had experienced to overcome these problems. Teachers acted in a support capacity to initiate discussions, provide prompts to teaching techniques and to record in brief the ideas coming forward. At the end of the exercise one teacher who was a talented illustrator produced a booklet comprising large charts that outlined the scheme, giving credit to the ideas produced by individual students. The scheme then became a resource booklet - it was argued that students were far more likely to use material they had been involved in producing.

Another way in which students were fully involved in the learning program at Mansfield was the formal use of cross-age tutoring in the school. Form 2 (Year 7) students assisted junior students in their reading program by listening and prompting. It was argued that the older students also benefited from improvement in their own reading skills. The scheme operated on a one-to-one basis so the junior students gained from close personal attention. The formal timetabling of cross-age tutoring began during third term, with two half-hour sesions each week. The tutoring usually took place outside the juniors room to lower the noise, and the junior students selected were generally those requiring an individualized reading program. Following the tutoring sessions discussion groups were held with the teachers to feed back experiences and problems, and to re-inforce the advice that students had already been given on techniques for tutoring. In addition to the benefits of increased skills it was advocated that there were social advantages to the scheme in furthering the contact between students of different ages so as to make older students more aware of the problems that juniors have, and to increase the self-confidence of both the juniors by their contact with older students and of the seniors through the knowledge that they were able to assist younger students.

The philosophy at Mansfield that spread across the teaching of all subjects was that students were not expected to listen passively. It was advocated that students should be given responsibility, allowed to make decisions and be involved in all aspects of the teaching program. Students were presented, for example, in the reading schemes with a variety of programs and materials so as to inject ideas into them to maximize their involvement. For example, the mathematics program had started on very structured lines, but had moved towards a less formalized plan with the assistance of the mathematics adviser. The teacher's role became less directive and more supportive.

In a more limited way the use of the 'language and learning' approach at Paterson District High School involved some informal peer group tutoring. This approach involved communication and learning through a preparatory presentation and reflection period. In effect it usually involved far more group work and less directive teaching. The teacher was seen more as a support worker, a co-ordinator and evaluator for student groups. One example of the approach involved the teaching of mathematics, by dividing the class into groups of about four students and giving each a different problem to solve: a problem was only considered solved when all members of the group had understood the solution. At that point the students re-formed in different groups and students had to explain the problem they had done and its solution to other members of that group and finally all the problems and their solutions were written on the blackboard.

Both of the examples listed above developed from educational philosophies rather than from the desire to make use of extra resources. However at Morant in the

development of a reading scheme which required individualized progress through reading skills, the school had needed to make use of other resources (both parent and student) to enable small group tutorial work. Year 6 students at Morant had therefore provided extra help by acting as tutors in the reading program for Year 1 students. Although the need for extra resources prompted this approach, it was also expected that the cross-age participation would have personal and social benefits to the students involved.

The Involvement of Parents and the Community

In addition to those personnel and material resources provided to schools by the education department and other educational agencies, schools to varying degrees were able to draw upon some of the resources of parents and of the community in which they were located.

Personnel resources. With respect to personnel, as opposed to financial resources, most schools made fairly considerable use of parental resources. The main exception was Pritchard where there was little parent involvement in the instructional program of the school although parents did provide transport and help out in camps. The lack of involvement may have been related to the older age range of such students in an intermediate school: in the schools visited parental involvement was higher with the younger students. To an extent, also, at Boldrewood teachers expressed concern that parental involvement in the school program was not overly high although with respect to involvement in policy issues (see Chapter 10) there had been some interesting developments.

At Rudd, on the other hand, the school had a policy of openness with regard to parents at the school. Parents were welcome at the school at any time. Parents were also extensively involved in the school program. Assistance was provided in the conduct of excursions, in sporting activities and as special guest speakers. Administrative help was provided by means of general clerical assistance (e.g. when ordering material) and helping in the operation of the library. There was also some involvement in ways more directly concerned with the work students did in class by means of listening to reading, assisting with the use of the dictionary for students who were reading, and preparing and distributing material. In a typical week for Year 2 there would be four parents, each working one and a half hours on Tuesday and Wednesday and four parents assisting for four hours on Thursday. The Thursday involvement would be associated with 'target day' when students' mastery of various skills was assessed. On craft days there would be a father involved in providing tuition about woodwork skills as well as other parents providing teaching in other crafts. In total the teaching hours provided by parents for Year 2 at Rudd Primary School in a typical week was equivalent in hours to an additional full-time teacher or teacher aide. Extra assistance with excursions and at high demand times would be additional to that. Parents could also be involved in other ways which

influenced the school program. A school-based evaluation of the mathematics program had involved one meeting attended by 50 or 60 parents. At the meeting opportunity was provided for parents to indicate their likes and dislikes concerning the program and to suggest priorities in the sorts of information which should be gathered to assess its effectiveness.

Extended parental involvement had made the school a focus in the community. This had, however, in some ways, increased the demands placed on teachers in that they were more frequently consulted about home and community problems. Such consultations provided valuable contact for teachers and enabled them better to understand some of the learning difficulties and behaviour problems they encountered in students. The contact with the school may possibly have been valuable in providing parents with advice which assisted them to contribute to broader aspects of their childrens' education. However, this type of activity did represent a considerable expansion of the teachers' role: an expanded role to which they had been forced to adapt rather than a role for which they had been given either training or time.

At Franklin School, parents in the local community provided strong support for the school. In 1979, 171 parents were involved on a roster basis to help in the infant section (Years K-2) of the school. In Years 3 to 6 there was less extensive involvement though some parents regularly helped in Year 3 and Year 6. The role performed was a general non-professional one and incorporated listening to students read, reading, making and preparing materials. Parental involvement was seen by the school as valuable in providing a wide range of adults with whom students could interact rather than as simply providing additional help.

A significant feature of the teaching at Morant was the involvement of parents and (as noted earlier) students in the school's reading program. This was a program which was dependent on the provision of tuition in small groups. In 1979, nine parents had been involved in this program and, in 1980, there were six parents involved. The duration of their involvement varied but it averaged about one hour per week for each parent. It was considered by the school that the program had been very effective. Some indication of the extent of its effectiveness could be gained from the students' scores on the Primary Evaluation Program Reading comprising sub-tests of literal meaning, implied meaning, comprehension and vocabulary which was administered in April and November each year. Results from those tests were recorded for all 28 students in class D (Years 3 and 4) as percentile ranks on state norms. The average percentile rank in April was 37.2 (the standard deviation was 25.5) and in November it was 53.7 (the standard deviation was 31.8). Thus the average gain was 16.5 percentile points. Three students did worse on the second test, two gained the same result as on the first test but the 23 remaining students improved over the course of the year. The explanation for any gains made through the program could be interpreted as resulting from either the materials, the

added emphasis given to reading by committed teachers, or the additional teaching resources provided by the parents. Many at the school thought that the success was largely due to the additional teaching resources provided by the parents and argued that the program would be even more effective with some specialized professional help in addition.

At Paterson District High School, it was an accepted part of the school policy statements that community interest in the school be encouraged and that interest should be capitalized on by:

- involving parents in remedial and enrichment work and in all processes that require a one-to-one ratio such as reading;
- mobilizing educational resources in the community, both personal and physical resources;
- enriching the program through volunteer teachers; and
- involving parents in excursions, camps and sporting trips.

Parental assistance was more common in the lower years. Generally teachers considered parents were very willing to assist in the school program. In sum, the school experienced, like many rural schools, a very close relationship with the parents and community.

The pattern of involvement was similar at Clarke, Mansfield and Marsh. In fact, at Clarke, as many as 120 mothers would be involved in the school for a total of up to 300 hours a week. Their activities would be very similar to those performed by the official teacher aides and occasionally they would even take topics such as drama or art and craft in which they had particular expertise. Some teachers operated a roster system to make use of parental help whereas others would be more informal. These close community and school links were reciprocated to the extent that the school buildings were well used by the community. At Marsh, parental involvement included assistance with excursions and sporting activities, assistance in the library, preparation of materials, assistance in specialist activities or acting as guest speakers. Also parents helped in the reading program, listening to students, especially those in junior classes. In all, about six parents were actively involved in this scheme. Although one or two teachers felt this involvement could add to the work load of teachers (supervising the aides) teachers agreed there was a willingness on the part of parents to assist.

The involvement of parents in the school program was, then, very common in most schools. The involvement covered many aspects of the school program, and it was interesting that where small group teaching was required parents had often been called on. The involvement had two aspects to it. It was not simply a means of getting some free extra personnel resources but a belief that the community and the school should be integrated. The more rural the school the greater was this belief. At Mansfield, for example, the principal noted that, as part of the school's responsibility to its community,

it attempted to involve the whole community as support for the school, and not just the official representatives of the council. The innovative development of a school council from the original school committee and the parent teachers association (see Chapter 10) as well as the principal's informal social role as a focal point in the community were responses to the desire to help create an integrated community. In addition to this, parents and the community were always available to assist in sport, socials, bus trips, and minor repair work in the school. Also, the school had invited parents to enter the school to help with classroom work such as reading to groups of students, displaying children's work, listening to reading groups, acting as teacher aides and helping to correct students' work. The school grounds had been opened to the community and a tennis and badminton club were formed in the school for community use.

Financial resources. Another form of community and parental involvement in the primary schools was in the provision of financial resources. The extent and the necessity for this varied from one school to the next and from one education system to the next. In New Zealand for example, it was not uncommon that locally raised money which was paid into one account had to be used to underwrite the direct grants from the Education Board. At Marsh, the principal noted that the community was very generous with contributions but, at other schools he had worked in, there had been serious cash shortages and teachers had contributed significant amounts of their own money to augment school supplies. The amount of monies raised locally varied greatly but at Franklin, Morant and Clarke yearly figures of $5000, $4000 and $35,000 respectively contributed significantly to the school resources. The very large figure for Clarke reflected both the size of the school (there were over 1000 students) and the wealthy community, being mainly connected to the coal mining industry.

Secondary Schools

The Use of Ancillary Staff

Table 8.2 shows the number and configuration of ancillary staff in the secondary schools that were visited. Generally schools had a similar quantity of ancillary staff, the exceptions being the very small allocation to Lawson School, located in a system which has tended to provide more generous teaching allocations than ancillary allocations, (see Ainley, 1982), and the generous allocation to Kendall College.

The use of ethnic aides or program aides at two of the schools was an interesting response to perceived problems in such schools. At Brennan, some 64 per cent of students were born overseas in a country whose mother tongue was not English, and a school survey conducted in 1979 revealed that in 340 families English was not the language of communication in the home. In responding to the educational needs of these students, the task of Brennan was made even more difficult by the diversity of ethnic

Table 8.2 Number of Ancillary Staff (Equivalent Full-time and Number per 1000 Students) of Different Types in Secondary Schools, 1980

	Teacher aides		Library aides		Ethnic aides		Home Economics aides		Laboratory aides		Bursars		Clerks	
	EFT	No. per 1000	EFT	No. per 1000	EFT	No. per 1000	EFT	No. per 1000	EFT	No. per 1000	EFT	No. per 1000	EFT	No. per 1000
Paterson	n.a.[a]	n.a.	0.6	8	n.a.	n.a.	0.1	1.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.0	4.3
Lawson	1.0	1.4	0.5	0.7	n.a.	n.a.	0.5	0.7	1.0	1.4	n.a.	n.a.	2.5	3.5
Lindsay	n.a.	n.a.	2.0	1.8	n.a.	n.a.	2.0	1.8	2.0	1.8	1.0	0.9	6.4	5.8
Palmer	4.0	3.1	1.0	0.8	n.a.	n.a.	0.8	0.6	4.0[c]	3.1	1.0	0.8	3.6	2.8
Kendall	n.a.	n.a.	1.5	2.2	n.a.	n.a.	0.5	0.7	2.5[c]	3.6	1.0	1.5	5.0	7.2
Dennis	n.a.	n.a.	1.8	2.6	1.0	1.5[b]	n.a.	n.a.	1.4[c]	2.1	1.0	1.5	3.0	4.4
Richardson	2.5	9.3	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	1.0	3.7
Brennan	2.5	3.0	1.5	1.9	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.2	n.a.	n.a.	3.5	4.3

a Not applicable.
b This position was a 'program' aide working in the literacy and numeracy area.
c Includes audio-visual assistance.

groups which the school served. The school enrolled students from 32 different ethnic backgrounds and the five predominating ethnic groups namely the Turkish, Arabic, Greek, Yugoslav and Spanish-Americans between them comprised about 36 per cent of the total student enrolment. Although the school had at its disposal two part-time ethnic aides, one who was fluent in Arabic and the other fluent in Turkish, the school still considered it essential that additional aides be appointed to assist with the multicultural program, particularly those with facility in the major ethnic languages of the Brennan students. The provision of a large number of aides at Brennan was in part a reflection of its 'disadvantaged' status. A Schools Commission Multicultural Grant for 1981 has enabled the increased employment of ethnic aides: Arabic (3 days per week), Turkish (2 days per week), Greek (1 day per week). The ethnic aides had the additional task of aiding with the involvement of migrant parents in multicultural curriculum development. They liaised with community ethnic groups and individual families. Their work paralleled a staff development program on multiculturalism and its impact in the school. These two activities linked up in a combined program which incorporated a community day, parent-teacher committees and teacher-student committees. These committees examined the feasibility of curriculum development as an outcome of co-operative efforts, staff, parent and student aspirations and expectations. Hopefully positive curriculum changes would eventuate in the form of new programs or modification of existing ones.

At Dennis Technical School a teacher aide had recently been reclassified as a program aide as the position had come under the supplementary grants program and was specifically concerned with developing literacy and numeracy. This redeployment was a response to the requirements of the funding bodies which required resources being focused towards students with specific problems.

The only other issue of interest with respect to the allocation of ancillary staff related to the discretion that schools had with respect to their appointment. This discretion could take two forms:

- discretion over the configuration of ancillary staff, or
- involvement in the actual process of employment.

At Palmer High School, for example, the education system allowed the school considerable say in the configuration of ancillary staff. Bursars, caretakers and groundsmen were considered 'core' appointments but beyond that the school was allocated a number of hours ancillary staff per week which was calculated as: 100 + 5T where T was the full-time equivalent teacher number. At Palmer, staff discussion determined the final configuration. Similarly, at Brennan the school had relatively more involvement in the appointment of ancillary staff than was evident for the appointment of teachers. While the basic entitlement for ancillary staff was based upon total

enrolments, and the school was allocated a number of designated ancillary staff, within the total entitlement Brennan was able to nominate, for three positions, the type of ancillary staff which it required.

This pattern of discretion was similar for both Dennis Technical School and Kendall College. The formula under which ancillary staff were allocated to senior colleges granted a core of six staff (comprising one registrar, one janitor, one secretary, one general assistant, one library assistant and one laboratory assistant) plus one ancillary staff member for every 12 teachers. The configuration of the ancillary staff structure at the school beyond that specified in the core was at the discretion of the college. An important feature of technical schools was that the school, rather than the education department, employed the ancillary staff in the school (within a total number determined in relation to the school enrolment). Thus, such staff as clerical assistants, teacher aides, and laboratory assistants as well as cleaning staff were appointed by and employed by the school council. At Dennis Technical School the council would consider the requests of subject departments and the school in general in deciding the areas in which ancillary staff would be employed. Thus, for these types of positions the school was able, not only to deploy its resources to match its requirements, but to appoint the staff with the skills most suited to those requirements.

The involvement in the actual process of employment of staff was also noticeable at both Lawson and Richardson. In the past the school council at Lawson had been involved only in the employment of clerical staff but in 1980 this had widened to include the appointment of a teacher aide. Similarly, at Richardson the school was involved in the appointment of teacher aides and laboratory assistants through interview panels and recommendations to the education department.

At Lindsay School, with the initiation of the sub-school structure the school had been able to negotiate for the appointment of two extra secretaries over and above the normal ancillary allocation. These staff were initially appointed to provide clerical and administrative assistance for the sub-schools, subject departments and school administration. Their role, however, had become important in an informal, unstructured way. Because the sub-school co-ordinators were often teaching, the secretaries were frequently the only people readily available to students and parents. Information about student needs could often be relayed through the secretary to teachers and on other occasions the mere presence of the secretary was sufficient, by giving the student someone to talk to who was not so directly associated with the school system. In effect the secretaries were providing a welfare role in their own right.

Just as the primary schools visited frequently expressed the need for more ancillary staff so did the secondary schools. This was perhaps most noticeable in the area of practical arts. In three of the schools visited, the art faculty noted the heavy burden of preparation and tidying up associated with art lessons.

The Involvement of Students

There was very little direct involvement of students in the planning and conduct of the program in the schools visited. The major exception to this was at Palmer High School. At this school, students had substantial involvement in the choice of subjects and in decision-making structures. In addition, there were one or two other aspects of the involvement of students at Palmer worth comment. As noted earlier, Palmer had a small Mixed Faculty School operating somewhat independently from the main school. In this sub-school, curricula were based on contract teaching which enabled students to participate in the choice of the curricula to be taught. The extent to which this negotiation was possible varied somewhat with the different subjects; for example mathematics appeared less suitable to such negotiation. The negotiation could take two forms: a class negotiation of the curricula and an individual negotiation of the topics in which a student would become involved. Part of the philosophy of the contracting was to teach students about how they themselves learnt, and to teach organizational skills and social skills.

Another facet of the sub-school was the establishment of a peer group tutor system on a trial basis. This involved calling for student volunteers, giving them some general instructions on learning behaviour and learning from students their expectations as tutors. Students were then allocated to various classes according to suitability. Not all teachers in the Mixed Faculty School did adopt the system of peer group tutoring but where it was used it was formally structured. As the classes were of mixed ability with a wide achievement range, it was possible to arrange for the bright to help the less able. A number of possible structures operated:

- placing a bright student in a group with a less able student;
- one-to-one tutoring in the classroom;
- small group tutoring in the classroom;
- individual or small group tutoring in unscheduled time periods.

Although no formal provision was made for cross-age tutoring in the Mixed Faculty School, the unscheduled time system that operated there allowed the integration of Year 8, 9 and 10 students which had reputedly encouraged friendships across year groups and encouraged contacts between students and other teachers.

Outside the Mixed Faculty School there existed a Junior Education Team, (JET) which was based on the concept of cross-age tutoring. At Palmer, students interested in personal development through interaction with younger people and teachers could use some of their elective time to go to local primary and junior primary schools on a regular basis to work as junior educators under the supervision of teachers at those schools. On completion of the scheme students were issued with certificates. In practice, to fit into the timetable requirements of other schools it often happened that students at Palmer

used some of their unscheduled time for the JET and then used elective time as unscheduled. This degree of flexibility was possible within the timetable structure at Palmer. The scheme was available for Year 11 and Year 12 students. In 1980 about 20 students were involved and in Term 2 (1980) it was estimated that 336 hours of volunteer work occurred. In addition to the cross-age tutoring in the Junior Education Team, students in Years 11 and 12 assisted in the Learning Assistance Program through tutorial sessions with younger students. This scheme, however, was mainly designed to involve parents and is therefore discussed more fully in the following section.

It was noted earlier that Paterson District High School operated a 'language and learning' approach which did to some extent involve more student involvement in the learning and teaching process. This however was the only other example of student involvement in the schools visited. In both cases the involvement was based mainly on education philosophies rather than a desire to use students as extra resources.

The Involvement of Parents and the Community

Personnel resources. Unlike the primary schools visited, the secondary schools had far less involvement of parents or community personnel in the school program. Parents in secondary schools were more likely to become involved in the official bodies of the school (parents association, canteen, school council) rather than the program itself. Exceptions to this were the district high school, which has been discussed earlier (but even here the main involvement was in the primary sector), the Learning Assistance Program at Palmer High School and the attempts at community involvement at Brennan.

The Learning Assistance Program was the original idea of a senior student counsellor at Palmer High School and the system was set up in a very limited way as early as 1976. At that time an article was placed in a local newspaper seeking the help of interested people who were able to commit a couple of hours each week to assist students who had learning difficulties. The present organizer of the scheme was one of the original helpers and she gradually assumed more responsibility in the organization. At that stage the scheme was part-time and voluntary, there was no office space in which to operate and regular contact with students or volunteers was impossible. In 1977 the program received a boost as the recipient of a Schools Commission Innovations Grant. A co-ordinator was appointed for 15 hours each week and the scheme expanded. The boys sick room was also made available as a home area with some minor alterations. The school library provided books and stationery and games were purchased. By third term 1977 a total of 10 volunteers worked on a one-to-one basis twice each week. Each session lasted approximately 40 minutes. The aims of the program were specified as:

- to assist students who are having difficulties with basic skills, e.g. reading, writing, comprehension, spelling, numeracy, etc.;

- to increase the student's level of achievement, both personally and in relation to other students;
- to engender confidence and security through a one-to-one learning process so as to enable the student to assimilate into a normal teaching situation with which at present he is unable to cope;
- to prepare programs of work tailored to the individual needs of the students,
- to relate the school to the community and increase parent and community participation in the school. (Penhall, 1980)

To attract volunteers, in 1978 parents were invited to attend a meeting at which the aims of the scheme were expounded. At the end of this meeting 35 volunteers had offered their assistance. The same practice occurred in 1979 resulting in a further 28 volunteers as well as 10 volunteers from 1978 continuing. Although many other means of attracting help were tried the personal approach was considered by far the most satisfactory. In 1980 some 29 volunteers dealt with 36 students.

Referral of students to the program was the responsibility of each teacher. The teacher would send a student in need of assistance to the co-ordinator who would then explain the scheme. If the student was willing to join, a personal timetable for assistance was arranged. At any time the student was free to withdraw from the scheme, although the student would be encouraged to remain. In its early stages the scheme took only students from two special classes but this was extended to cater for the whole school. The program gradually became accepted by students, and many referred themselves or brought along friends in need of assistance. Students were only turned away if they did not need the help the program offered. Students ranged from Year 8 through to Year 11.

The unscheduled time system at Palmer High School provided the flexibility for the program to operate because it was during this time that students attended the program. The matching of students to volunteers was performed by matching times available. The co-ordinator then discussed the scheme individually with each volunteer and each month there were meetings with volunteers at the school. The co-ordinator's role in the scheme was varied, involving clerical and administrative tasks as well as liaison (between students, staff and parents) and counselling.

Among the problems faced by the program was one of lack of space. Although the sick room provided a home area other space was needed for volunteer sessions: corridors and open areas were used at different times. The co-ordinator believed that, although the use of space was by no means perfect, students and volunteers managed fairly well.

In 1978, the volunteer system was extended to allow Year 11 and Year 12 students to help as part of their elective program. The co-ordinator had expressed no difficulties in the operation of this.

The actual programs of work varied with each student's needs. Some worked on topics set at class, others on basic reading, writing and mathematics skills (aids and

equipment were purchased specifically for this), others on social and communicative skills, others on survival skills (e.g. using a telephone book, shopping skills) and all students spent some time reading. In addition outside activities were available for students. These special projects were initiated, among other reasons to:

- provide interesting and varied work to complement basic programs;
- give students/volunteers a group project on which to work with a feeling of unity;
- give students confidence in their ability.

The co-ordinator concluded in a report to the Schools Commission that the program had been able to make a worthwhile contribution towards the improvement of basic skills and towards the unification of students, school, parents and community. It was felt that degrees of success had been achieved with all students and frequently this had also led to an improved overall attitude.

Towards the end of 1979 the Schools Commission funding for the scheme ended. However, the principal was able to convince the education department that it should be continued in 1980. This is perhaps the best indication of how importantly the scheme was viewed at the school. Although the problem of funding will continue, the school appeared committed to continuation of the program.

At Brennan, parents and community members directly assisted in the conduct of the teaching program and extra-curricular activities of the school through activities such as acting as guest speakers, assisting in the conduct of sport and recreation, and assisting in the library. The particular interest at Brennan however lay in the attempts to involve actively members of the principal ethnic groups in the multicultural and language development activities of the school. Inevitably with such a high proportion of families having only recently arrived in Australia, progress in generating community involvement had been relatively slow and tentative. However, some significant successes had occurred. The school counsellor and several other staff, through home visits during school hours had established valuable contacts with a number of parents, and increasingly parents appeared to be willing to visit the school for discussions with teachers. A major factor in the success of these programs was the existence on the staff of several teachers and teacher aides who could each speak at least one of the major ethnic languages.

It was the view of the staff, however, that efforts at generating community involvement needed to be considerably expanded. Accordingly, the school submission for additional funding under the 1981 Schools Commission's Disadvantaged Schools Program paid considerable attention to means of increasing home and school interaction. A major part of the submission was for the employment of a full-time social worker whose duties would include the development of a parent effectiveness training scheme, the identification and assistance of socially isolated families, implementation of support

programs for families in financial need, and the establishment of joint parent-student counselling programs. A further important component of the submission was to supplement the Arabic and Turkish ethnic aides which the school had in 1980 with a Greek ethnic aide for 1981. It was submitted that these aides, who would each work for one day per week, would assist the school program by translating written material for distribution to students and parents, interpreting when parents visited the school, assisting students in the classroom, advising teachers on strategies for coping with language difficulties, and translating for the social worker on home visits. These programs developed primarily from a belief that the home played a crucial role in the successful development of the student, a role which the school should try to enhance. As such the school, unlike many other schools, was not trying to directly supplement its personnel resources by encouraging parents and other community members to involve themselves in the school program. Rather the approach at Brennan was more indirect, namely to encourage parents to become aware of the school program and the role of the home in complementing that program. It was perhaps the case that this indirect approach was inevitable at a school like Brennan since its local community was poor in resources and had a high proportion of parents whose more direct involvement in the school would be hampered by either language difficulties, employment commitments or both. Indeed, in a very real sense Brennan High School was moving more towards being a resource centre for its local community rather than vice versa, with the most obvious illustration of this process being the proposed appointment of a social worker for 1981.

Financial resources. While other schools had not made use of parental resources in the same way as Palmer, the financial input from the community through the canteen, parents association or school council was generally fairly substantial in all schools visited. For example, at Lawson in 1979, $6500 had been raised locally, of which half came from donations requested of parents, with the remainder accruing from canteen profits, the hire of facilities and special fund-raising activities. Such locally raised money was spent on the school camp, general building and extra equipment. At Lindsay, the fund-raising capacity of the Parents and Citizens Association was also fairly impressive and it was noted that approximately $10,000 a year could be raised. Money from the association was contributing towards the recently built swimming pool. At Richardson, parental contributions and canteen profits had enabled the purchase of a computer in addition to books, playground equipment and audio-typing facilities. At Kendall College, the supplementary service charge of $75 per full-time student yielded a little over $45,000 a year. At Palmer, the annual fund-raising of the Parents Association brought in about $4000 a year, and this had in the past been spent on musical instruments and computing equipment. Brennan School also sought as far as possible to acquire funds directly from the local community both by means of fees levied upon students and other

fund-raising ventures. Despite the relatively severe economic disadvantage suffered by much of its catchment area, such efforts had been comparatively successful, and the funds generated had been usefully deployed to supplement the material resources of the school.

Summary

This chapter has examined the use made of ancillary staff, students and parents or community in the operation of the school program in the primary and secondary schools visited. With respect to the involvement of students there was little evidence that this practice was greatly employed in the schools. The main exceptions were one primary school (Mansfield) and one secondary school (Palmer) where the involvement of students was seen as an extension of the schools' educational philosophies which encouraged such involvement in decisions and activities. In both schools satisfaction had been expressed with these practices. It was perhaps surprising that not more secondary schools had employed such strategies in response to the greater maturity of their students, but it was also interesting that a primary school had successfully introduced such a scheme. The rationale for such involvement was, as noted, a response to educational philosophies. Only to a small extent, with respect to the reading program at Morant and the Learning Assistance Program at Palmer was the purpose seen as also generating small group instructional units with the perceived benefits accruing from such groupings. At Morant and Palmer the perceptions of teachers and other staff indicated that schemes used to generate small group instruction, with the use of parents and students, were very successful.

With respect to parental involvement it was shown, not surprisingly, that there was much greater involvement of parents in the school programs of primary schools than of secondary schools. Once again the exception was Palmer and to an extent Brennan, although at Brennan the aim was to increase parental awareness of school activities rather than encourage their direct involvement. It would seem that as students age, their parents no longer feel the necessity to maintain such close contact with their daily activities, and perhaps, even, that many secondary schools do not possess the flexibility of organization to encourage such contact. This is not to say that the secondary schools did not encourage indirect assistance through formal committees and the like but that involvement more directly in the school program was sometimes considered an encroachment. The counsellor who had organized the Learning Assistance Program at Palmer noted that the teaching staff had been very encouraging and helpful: there had never been any problems of role conflict in the work even though there had been concern about this at the earlier stages of the project.

Parental involvement, however, is not an easy and inexpensive means for schools to supplement their resources. Co-ordinating parental involvement requires time of teachers and in the case of an extensive project like the one at Palmer, it requires funding to employ a co-ordinator. The indication is, however, that not only can this resource be usefully tapped to create small group instructional settings with all the perceived advantages that research claims for this (see Smith and Glass, 1979) but it can also be used as an extension of the belief that schools and their communities should be closely integrated.

The issue of parental and community involvement and financial input to schools raises issues of the equality of education. Economically disadvantaged communities may not have the resources to contribute greatly to the school. It was interesting that at Brennan School the approach had become, in response to this, more indirect; namely to encourage parents to become aware of the school program and the role of the home in complementing that program. This policy was not without its resource implications, however, and without funding from the Schools Commission it was unlikely that the policy could be effectively implemented. In economically disadvantaged areas, schools have to put in a lot of work to receive the benefits of community support.

With respect to ancillary staff, with the exception of variations between schools concerning their say in staff configuration, there was nothing special about the schools visited. Many schools expressed the need for teaching or clerical aides of different sorts. What seemed to come out of the visits to schools was the advantage of allowing schools greater flexibility in the appointment of staff. With respect to ancillary staff, schools had generally been granted greater flexibility, both in determining the configuration and also in the actual employment process, than they had with regard to teaching staff. This seemed to be well accepted by the schools and could possibly be extended. In addition there might be a case for allowing the flexibility to operate in conjunction with the appointment of teaching staff. A school may feel it could make better use of an extra ethnic aide or an administrative aide with a reduction in its teaching allocation or vice versa. This issue is discussed more in Chapter 12 of this report and in the report on the system-level resource policies (see McKenzie and Keeves, 1982).

CHAPTER 9

THE SCHOOLS TEACHING PROGRAM

There are of course a great number of issues pertaining to the schools teaching program. The purpose of this chapter is to focus on a few key issues that either arose from the visits to the school or were suggested in preliminary advisory meetings. This chapter is concerned therefore with one of the six sets of issues guiding the research methodology, namely, aspects of school program. The aspects of the teaching program examined are as follows:

- the relative emphasis on welfare and academic goals;
- the extent of student participation in curriculum choice;
- the transition education programs at schools;
- the role of specialist teaching in primary schools.

Although the first issue is relevant to both secondary and primary schools, the second and third issues are on the whole of greater concern to secondary schools, and the fourth issue is peculiar to primary schools. With the exception of the pastoral/academic debate, then, separation of the two school sectors is ignored in the discussion which follows.

The Pastoral/Academic Dichotomy

The title of this section carries with it the assumption that there is a dichotomy in the approaches that schools adopt with respect to pastoral provision and normal teaching activities. This is not necessarily the case and this section examines the extent that such a dichotomy exists in the schools visited.

Pastoral care can be generated in a school in a number of different ways. For example, schools can employ special personnel such as student welfare co-ordinators, schools can create special organizational features such as sub-schools, schools can generate inter-student co-operation through home-group allocation strategies or schools can rely on the teachers to include a pastoral role in their normal teaching duties. In the schools visited all of these strategies had been tried.

To the extent that sub-schools are formed to provide a pastoral component to schooling, to make schools more humane and happier places for students, much of the rationale for the development of such structures is embodied in the research literature on school size. The sub-school approach is very much an attempt to generate the perceived advantages that small schools possess, but the approach may also have the disadvantages that small schools are reputed to possess and these disadvantages concern aspects of schools other than the provision of welfare.

Research into School Size

The debate that has surrounded the issue of class size has been paralleled at the school level with the debate surrounding the school size issue (Skidmore, 1981). The question of the most appropriate size of schools can be seen to relate to four distinct issues: cognitive achievement in students, affective outcomes relating to students and teachers, the deployment and management of educational resources, and costs to the educational system. The relationship between school type, school size, and operating costs is discussed in the companion volume (McKenzie and Keeves, 1982) and is not elaborated further here.

Cognitive achievement. With respect to student achievement research, evidence reported in early Reviews of Educational Research (see for example 1961 and 1964) indicated that, in the United States, very small schools had lower academic achievements than larger schools. The relationships found were not linear: there may in fact be an optimum size of school beyond which the general level of achievement falls. In the International Study of Achievement in Mathematics (Husen, 1967) it was reported that in comprehensive, selective academic and selective vocational schools the highest achievement scores occurred with enrolments above 800 when students aged 13 were tested. Evidence was more conflicting concerning students in their final year of schooling, and national differences seemed to be very important. Even the finding for the younger students could be confounded by the location of such large schools. It is clear that the research evidence is too fragile to be a basis for policy decisions.

Deployment and management of educational resources. With respect to the deployment and management of educational resources, the TEND Report (1978:44) commented:

> It is the manner in which some educational resources are used that noticeable differences begin to emerge between schools of different sizes. In a large school it is easier to provide a wide variety of courses, but even very small schools, such as the 50 student experimental school, Tagari, have been able to provide a richer variety than many large schools by judicious use of community resources and part-time staff. The larger the school the more teachers there are in non-teaching occupations in the school administration. There is more clerical support staff and possibly more educational support staff in the form of remedial teachers, specialist teachers and guidance personnel. There is also a tendency to establish a hierarchy of senior school staff. One important effect of the increase in staff numbers is an increased formalizing of relationships among the staff.

Morgan (1980) has studied the resource implications of curriculum range and enrolment levels, implications which clearly bear on the school size issue. Figure 9.1 (taken from Morgan, 1980) is an illustration of the theoretical relationship between enrolments, class size and the number of subjects offered. The three different lines depicted on Figure 9.1 related to three different ranges of subject offerings. Taking the range 15-19 Year 12 subjects, it can be seen that as enrolments increased so did the

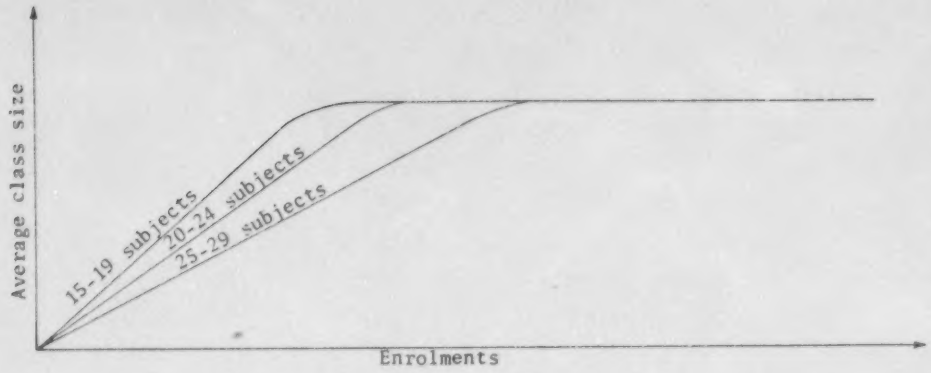

Figure 9.1 Relationship between Enrolments, Class Size, and Number of Subjects Offered at Year 12 (Taken from Morgan, 1980)

average class size. Once a certain enrolment level was reached, however, the average class size stabilized. With respect to the other ranges of subjects it was noted that the following pattern occurred for the rising portion of the graph:

- For a fixed enrolment level a school which teaches more subjects will have a smaller average class size.
- Schools which offer a greater number of subjects reach a stable average class size at greater enrolment levels than schools offering fewer subjects.

The second portion of the graph shows that all schools will reach a stable class size which is not dependent on the number of subjects offered, providing enrolments are high enough. Ainley (1982) has suggested that in practice a total enrolment in Years 11 and 12 above 80 or 100 students was required for the plateau section in most systems.

It should be noted that those schools situated on the sloping sections of the graph are not (in economic terms) well placed to sustain enrolment decline. The options available to such schools include reducing the number of subjects, allocating a greater proportion of teachers to Year 12 rather than the junior years, or reducing the non-contact time of teachers. It should also be noted that the real needs of small schools related to curriculum diversity in Years 11 and 12 and this throws into question those staffing formulae which do not explicitly take into account the needs of the senior year levels. At a more general level, this raises the issue of the most appropriate structure of secondary education: should all Year 11 and 12 students be located in one institution as they are in Tasmania and the Australian Capital Territory? The rationale for the implementation of such educational structures was multi-dimensional but one argument that can be advanced is that such schools optimize the balance of resources between senior and lower levels of the school: in any one school the dependency of the

lower school on the upper school curriculum is eliminated and the issue of resources becomes a system-wide issue, that is the amount of resources provided to senior schools as opposed to junior schools. With respect to sub-school organization, if the sub-schools are to operate completely independently the balance between class sizes, curriculum range, sub-school size and non-contact time becomes especially problematic.

Affective outcomes. The final issue related to the school size question concerns the affective impact on students and teachers of being taught in schools of varying sizes. Campbell, Cotterell, Robinson and Sadler (1979) have examined the nature and immediate effects of the ecological environments in schools of different sizes (sizes ranged from 168 to 1093) and have attempted to explore the relationship of these effects to some psychological outcomes in students. The authors readily admit that the size of a school is unlikely to be a major influence on student development, and that size should be regarded as a marker variable which does not influence development directly but rather exerts an effect through experiences which it facilitates or inhibits. The authors studied eight possible personality outcomes. The findings indicated that the effects of school size were only clearly reflected in two of the outcomes, 'sense of cohesion' and 'concern for persons', although there was a lesser relationship with the variables, 'attitude towards school' and 'fear of failure'.

In summation the authors recommended: (1) whenever possible, small, rather than big, schools should be established; and (2) on the assumption that large schools are here to stay there should be active experimentation with different structures within them.

Campbell (1979) studied the relationship of school learning structures to some reactions of students. It was the small schools (sizes of schools in the study ranged from 298 to 1680) that were most likely to have flexible and responsive learning structures with respect to activities, times, spaces, social organization and control. Campbell suggested three solutions: (1) expand resources and facilities in large schools; (2) create a number of semi-autonomous small schools within each large one; and (3) do not allow schools to become too large. From this study limited support was provided for the first solution, and no support for the second - the semi-autonomous small schools studied did not have flexible learning structures. Only the third solution received unequivocal support.

A more recent study (Campbell and Robinson, 1981) examined the quality and teaching costs of alternative arrangements made for rural senior secondary school students in south-east Queensland. Comparative data were presented on school offerings and student experiences; psychological climates as perceived by senior students; out of school activities; teaching costs (that is salary costs associated with school-based teaching staff); and some reactions of students to their school experiences. Campbell and Robinson referred to small schools (enrolments ranged from 144 to 241), medium

schools (enrolments ranged from 321 to 400) and large schools (enrolments ranged from 731 to 1235). The study also separated students into locally based and commuting. The authors concluded:

> We can begin by noting that, while attendance at a large school is the most economical practice, it is probably not the most educationally efficient; our impression from the data is that the saving in teaching cost per student is more than offset by the loss in educational quality. This is the judgment too, as we noted in Section III, of teachers and parents. The main choice, then, seems to be between small and medium-sized schools, or a mixture of both. (Campbell and Robinson, 1981:49)

Campbell and Robinson conclude that communities which can sustain a secondary enrolment of 200 students should be supported in so doing but that the education authorities should pursue a more rigorous policy of establishing medium-sized schools with student enrolments between 300 and 450.

The TEND Committee Report (Tasmania. Education Department, 1978) presented evidence on affective effects of school size which suggested that teachers preferred teaching in small schools, their satisfaction declining in larger ones. The evidence also suggested that where there was a less intimate relationship between teachers and students, disciplinary problems tended to increase; smaller schools seemed better able to generate more whole-hearted community participation; and student satisfaction, which is related to the warmth of the student-teacher relationships, was likely to be greater in small schools. The Committee concluded:

> At least it can be said that enough of a case has been made out in favour of small schools to cause a halt to the building of any more large schools. We would suggest from the arguments and feelings of teachers and from the small amount of available evidence, that a school of 500 students is probably at a point at which it is beginning to lose its educational effectiveness. (Tasmania. Education Department, 1978:45)

Sub-school structures. Most of the evidence described above related to school size generally and not sub-school structures specifically. It is likely that such structures create issues unique to their organization and issues of school size may not embrace all these aspects. Campbell's (1979) study indicated that the semi-autonomous sub-schools did not, unlike small schools, generate a flexible learning structure. There has been little other research evidence collected in Australia on this issue. In Western Australia, the Research Branch of the Education Department had been asked to evaluate one sub-school system in a secondary school. The study (Western Australia. Education Department, 1978) indicated that the success of such an innovation depended as much on who was involved and how it was introduced as on its characteristics. The development of the sub-school was in part a response to the belief that a large minority of students was alienated from the school, a state reflected in tense student-teacher relationships, apathy towards school work, vandalism and the like. The evaluation of the sub-school at

Hamilton suggested a number of benefits: (1) facilitation of the care of individual students; (2) increased involvement of staff in school management; (3) improved contact between staff and parents; and (4) improvement in the curriculum range offered.

The evaluation also highlighted certain limitations of the system: (1) the need for additional resources (estimated at $50,000 per year); (2) the problems in reallocation of roles, in particular in the areas of discipline and administration; (3) some abuse of teacher tolerance following a relaxation of school rules; (4) a danger of declining academic standards as evidence suggested some reduction in test results in the lower school; (5) a danger of some role conflict between teaching staff and sub-school heads; and (6) an increased time commitment to the process of decision making.

In addition to these limitations the constraints on the school meant that certain reforms aimed to complement the sub-school philosophy were not implemented. These included: (1) streaming was not entirely abandoned; (2) subject specialization was not overcome; (3) individualized programs were introduced only to a limited extent; (4) core subjects continued to be compulsory; and (5) the parents-students-teachers council functioned intermittently.

Summarizing the evaluation, the author concluded that a school considering such a structure would be well advised to examine its aims and educational philosophies and ensure full staff involvement and commitment to change. Also, the author warned of the dangers of the re-allocation of roles in regard to the erosion of power from other staff, in particular the deputy principals and subject masters, and warned of the need to be patient in adapting to a major restructuring.

The following sections examine not only sub-school structures in the schools visited as they relate to pastoral provision, but also other welfare structures in the schools.

Secondary Schools

Lindsay. In three of the secondary schools visited a sub-school structure had been formed. Only in one school, however, was the dominant reason for the creation of such a structure one of pastoral emphasis. That school was Lindsay and it is worth examining the structure at this school in detail. Although at the time of the school visit Lindsay did not possess a written statement of its philosophy (a school policy statement was compiled in July 1981), in discussion with the principal the importance of the creation of a school environment which was conducive both to the personal and social development of students was stressed. The principal advocated the desire that the school should be as happy a place as possible, and that the institution of schooling should incorporate a caring role. He felt, in consideration of the need for lifelong education, that students needed to have a positive attitude to school and schooling. It was his belief that if schools merely contained students, these students would be less likely to learn effectively.

The Staff Association voted in acceptance of a semi-vertical sub-school organization for Lindsay as from 1976. A fairly large minority (23 per cent of staff) was opposed to the proposal. The proposal involved the creation of three lower school sub-schools and one upper-school sub-school. The overall purpose of the reorganization was to make the school more capable of dealing with individual students. This was felt to necessitate the subdivision of staff and students into smaller groups for the purposes of administration, instruction, and guidance. The proposed reorganization was a response to the perceived depersonalization of large schools with their perceived consequent behavioural problems.

At the time the Staff Association voted for the introduction of the sub-school system, the education department was requested to make certain provisions to facilitate the introduction of the system. These included: (1) the provision of two additional clerical staff; (2) the construction of one office between paired demountable classrooms, (3) the provision of additional office equipment and furnishings, (4) the provision of telephones in each sub-school office with internal and external extensions; and (5) financial and time allowances for sub-school co-ordinators and their assistants. The Department granted all these requests except that the sub-school assistant co-ordinators did not receive a time allowance; such an allowance was made available through internal school organization.

Lindsay operated four semi-vertical sub-schools. In each of three lower school sub-schools, approximately one-third of the students was drawn from each of the Years 8, 9, and 10. The upper school sub-school was for all Year 11 and Year 12 students. Each sub-school comprised a sub-school co-ordinator, an assistant co-ordinator, a sub-school secretary, about 20 teachers and about 300 students. The secretaries also carried out work for subject departments and the school administration. Teachers worked to a very large extent within their sub-schools but were usually allocated some teaching away from them in the upper school or other lower school areas. Classrooms were allocated largely within sub-schools as well as within subject areas.

Sub-school co-ordinators were elected by staff and held office for two-year terms after which they were eligible for re-election. It was education department policy that these officers could not be senior masters or mistresses. Teachers were able to exercise some choice as to the sub-school to which they were allocated, and the sub-school co-ordinator chose an assistant from within the teachers of his sub-school. The two teacher administrators and the sub-school secretary provided day-to-day continuity for parent enquiries, student welfare and referral. Although the position of assistant co-ordinator had been intended to help the sub-school co-ordinator there was a limit to the amount of that assistance because the time allowance was limited . The job of sub-school co-ordinator had, as a consequence, been seen as a time-consuming and difficult one. People filling the position have tended to be:

- experienced teachers with a feeling for the job and with administrative expertise, or
- young teachers with an interest in this area of work and with organizing ability, or
- female teachers seeking administrative opportunity.

The role of the sub-school co-ordinators did not differ greatly from one sub-school to the next although the emphases did vary somewhat between the lower school and upper school. The co-ordinator for the upper school felt his role was more in monitoring student progress in subjects than in dealing with the discipline problems of the type that occurred in the lower school. Amongst the other duties that co-ordinators performed were pastoral care, the organization of various special activities, liaison with parents either by arranging parent days or by personal contact, the choice of electives by students, and liaison with teachers about administrative or pastoral issues. The important role of the sub-school secretaries in both the administrative and pastoral aspects of sub-schools was discussed in the previous chapter.

An integral part of the pastoral emphasis of Lindsay School and therefore an extension of the sub-school philosophy was the system of contact groups which had been introduced at the beginning of 1980 to replace the form groups which operated previously. In the lower school these groups comprised students from Years 8, 9 and 10, and in the upper school students from Year 11 and Year 12. In the upper school the groups contained about 20 students, and the Year 12 student councillors (nine in all) were each allocated to a different contact group with three other students being allocated to the other three groups. In the lower school, the size of the groups was a little smaller (about 17). In 1980, contact groups met twice weekly for 25 minutes each. The general aim of such groups was to extend the form period concept beyond an administrative session into periods where both administrative and personal/social matters could be dealt with. The time was to be used so that teachers could get to know students more fully in order to provide them with an additional supportive figure. No strict guidelines as to the activities that would occur in the contact periods were given, in fact teachers were encouraged to develop a whole range of possibilities from discussions, indoor and outdoor games, to competitions. Most teachers in the school would have a contact group and students would generally remain from year to year in the same contact groups, except that new groups would be formed in the upper school sub-school. Lindsay also had on its staff a guidance officer who was involved in educational, vocational, and personal guidance for students.

The structure at Lindsay, therefore, involved a number of aspects all designed to assist in the welfare role. In addition, all teachers were expected to be engaged in welfare activities during their normal teaching duties. There was a considerable

resource input into these structures both within the school and from additional resources supplied to the school.

The selection of a vertical sub-school structure was a reaction to the previously existing horizontal structure which in the view of senior staff did not seem to be generating the pastoral commitment desired. It was felt that a vertical structure would provide a stability and continuity of welfare as students would not change sub-schools from one year to the next. Unlike the school from which the ideas were developed, Lindsay was not able to advertise or attract teachers who knew about the organizational structure and were therefore more likely to be committed to it.

The effects of these factors were fourfold: Lindsay was involved in a difficult period of transition which involved numerous meetings, debates and finally some physical and administrative re-organization. Secondly, the school also had to accept the range of views with respect to the organization that prevailed within the school. The new structure was born with some conflict and this continued for some time. Thirdly, due to the pressures of organizational change and day-to-day running of a school Lindsay had not been able to prepare a document outlining the developments and philosophy behind the changes: the school possessed no charter to commit staff to the underlying values the school expounded. Finally, Lindsay had to implement a sub-school structure within an architectural design which was not conducive to such an approach. Despite the attractiveness of the school site, the design of the school did pose certain problems even for a school organized on a conventional basis. For a school which had developed a sub-school philosophy the design was not at all appropriate. Part of the intention of the sub-school organization was to facilitate the capacity for smaller groups of students and teachers to identify with a specific sub-school. This is best achieved if the administration and teaching spaces for each sub-school can be located close together rather than a structure which requires students to move to all parts of the school. At Lindsay it was impossible, outside of the sub-school office, to identify the separate sub-schools. The principal and staff were well aware of this problem.

In addition, the school was attempting to set up a structure with a strong welfare emphasis in an education system that emphasized an academic approach and where the subject departments were historically very strong. In such a system, where the subject departments felt that the welfare role impinged upon their capacity to maximize the academic role, there was likely to be some conflict. It was also likely that it was the organizational structure that would be required to compromise rather than the teaching strategies of the subject departments. Given this constraint, the principal did feel that the structures developed might have been more likely to be accepted without conflict if teachers could have been specially selected or if some had had less authoritarian backgrounds and expectations. The problem, of course, is that there will be change-overs of staff. In addition, if the success of a structure requires a staffing

process that is overly elaborate, the value of that structure must be questioned. As was discussed in Chapter 6, at Lindsay these pressures materialized in the conflict between sub-school boundaries and departmental setting. When teaching occurred on strict sub-school lines, within the mathematics faculty it was not always possible to promote a student from one ability level to another without changing his sub-school. To overcome this problem the teachers of mathematics, rather than attempting to teach mixed ability groupings, might choose to promote students up two levels despite the inherent risks in this. The mathematics department argued the need for a graded approach because the texts available to teachers varied so greatly according to the level taught. In addition it could be argued that as most primary schools also adopted a grading system in mathematics it was inappropriate to move to a non-graded system at secondary school. Although the problem was not so obvious within the science department a similar argument was advanced. In that department two ability levels were taught but as these did not easily divide into equal groups it also became difficult to maintain the grouping practice and the sub-school boundaries. According to the science department, an added problem was that some teachers would be taking an advanced and a basic class at the same year level thereby increasing their preparation time.

As a result of these pressures, changes had been planned for 1981. Within the mathematics department it was accepted that the sub-school boundaries would not be definitive and movement across sub-schools to place students better in their ability groups would occur although on a relatively small scale. As the science department accepted the same class groups that were formed by the mathematics department, this seemed likely to affect their department also.

A further conflict in the process related to a more general issue: the school philosophy of providing a general education with a wide range of student options. If the pressures mentioned above force one to question the ease with which an innovation concerned with emphasizing pastoral care can be introduced within the constraints imposed by an academically-oriented system of education, there is also some conflict between the notion of reasonably small sub-schools and a wide range of options offered within sub-school boundaries. The critical issue here is the balance between numbers of students and number of options and the extent to which the education department is prepared to over-staff a school to assist the sub-school philosophy. At Lindsay, in 1981, almost all options were to be offered school-wide; basically the value of the wide range of options was seen to be too important to be adapted to fit with the sub-school concept. From early in the sub-school history, adaptations had been made to meet the need for a general education, and at the outset only Year 8 options were taught within sub-school boundaries. In 1981 even this was to change with the exception of physical and health education and sport, so as to counteract imbalances in class sizes.

The final pressure related to the organization of contact groups. A large number

of the staff were unhappy with the contact sessions. A frequent comment was that it was impossible 'to switch the welfare role on and off', that this role was better developed through the teaching groups and not through special groups. The range of activities developed within these groups was varied but for many they had not progressed beyond administrative sessions similar to form periods in other schools. In fact, even staff opposed to the contact system generally conceded that it had distributed much of the administrative work load across staff. Another criticism of the system related to the cross-age composition of the groups. Some staff argued that this was an unnatural grouping and a cross-age understanding and integration had not easily been developed, students preferring to mix with their own age group. A few other staff also felt uneasy at having these sessions in unsuitable specialist rooms which did not easily encourage the development of close group feelings although these seating problems appeared to have been resolved in 1981. In 1981, these sessions were to be reduced to just one 25-minute session a week, and an attempt seemed likely to be made to enable the groups to be formed such that contact teachers would also be teaching subjects to a large proportion of that group (in particular to the Year 8 students). Some doubts were raised as to how practical the latter suggestion would prove given the realities of staffing policies.

The concept of the contact group is not new and the difficulties expressed by teachers at Lindsay were not unique to that school. Some staff members expressed concern that the scheme was to be curtailed after such a short period of time and would have preferred to look for ways to assist the teachers in their new role. In many ways the problems of the system reflect the traditional subject-related training of teachers who may feel a little uneasy outside of that role. The situation was also affected by the mixed age groupings in which students also felt uncertain. At Lindsay, although there was a suggestion of adapting the system to produce groups with which teachers were more familiar, the response to the problems was to reduce the contact periods rather than to seek better mechanisms. In part, also, the problem of the contact groups seemed to be one of expectations. The philosophy behind the system had been clearly expounded but perhaps too little attention had been given to the means by which those ends could be achieved. A few guidelines as to possible activities had been presented but it appeared that many teachers felt unsure about the role, how it should be performed and what outcomes they expected from the contact periods. Rather than perceive the group activities as a gradual process of involvement to create confidence and empathy, each session was perceived in isolation and became, therefore, potentially threatening.

Another factor which is worth considering in the introduction of sub-schools is the effect of the development of further chains in the hierarchies of responsibility. In a system with traditions of strong subject departments it is likely that great care is needed in the formation of clear lines of demarcation. This is not necessarily an insuperable problem but it does require careful attention.

Lawson. At two other secondary schools, Palmer and Lawson, sub-school structures had also been developed. In both cases, however, the main emphasis was for curriculum or teaching purposes and not for pastoral care. Nevertheless in both cases the sub-school structure did have pastoral implications. At Lawson High School special emphasis was placed on creating a school environment conducive to learning. In the philosophical statement of the school it was noted:

> Learning should take place in a friendly, co-operative, structured, flexible environment catering for individual difference in interests and capabilities.

The sub-school structure at Lawson had split the school into three sub-schools: the junior school, comprising Year 7 students, was intended to provide a transition year from primary to secondary education; the middle school operated for students in Year 8 to Year 10; and the senior school comprised students from Years 11 and 12. Although the origins and rationale of the structure suggested that the prime arguments were educational and curricular rather than administrative or pastoral, the establishment of the junior school, where it was thought desirable to operate a small relatively autonomous administrative unit with which students and staff might identify and in which an education program would be designed to ensure a smooth transitional stage, did have built into it pastoral elements.

The ideal of having the junior sub-school as a discrete small unit staffed by teachers who chose to work almost exclusively in this area had to be modified. There were still some staff members who taught mainly in this area but the sub-school was not entirely discrete as many staff members preferred greater variety in their teaching loads. In spite of this there was a core of staff for whom the junior school was the main focus of their teaching, there was a distinctive timetable, and there was joint planning with the junior school co-ordinator. On balance, the result seemed to be a good compromise between the conflicting aims of providing a varied work load for staff, and having a small group of teachers teaching entirely at this level.

The second feature of the pastoral element of Lawson related to the home groups. At Year 7 the six classes formed the basis of both the teaching groups and home groups but in the middle and senior schools it is necessary to distinguish these groups. In the middle school there were 30 home groups of an average size of 13.7. Students were allocated so that the three year levels were represented, so that there was an equal number of boys and girls, and so that the group contained a wide range of aptitudes and types of course. In the senior school there were five home groups of average size 14.4 each incorporating the various strands of studies. The whole of Year 12 was treated as one home group.

In addition to these provisions and to the normal welfare role of individual teachers, the school had special personnel with roles related to welfare of students. These were the sub-school co-ordinators, and the student welfare co-ordinator. The

co-ordinators supervised the progress, with assistance from faculty co-ordinators, of students in the sub-school. The student welfare co-ordinator had a small teaching load, his main duties comprising counselling of students, community liaison, identifying areas where school policy needed to be developed and managing social services. Probably the majority of time was consumed in counselling students and in liaison with parents and referral to other agencies, but also important was the support provided for home groups through the suggestion of activities in which home group teachers might engage.

Palmer. As described in Chapter 6, the Mixed Faculty School began at Palmer in 1978. It had as part of its rationale the development of closer relations between teachers and students. In addition to the special position of the Mixed Faculty School in welfare provision, in the school as a whole there also existed a structure of counselling groups. Student allocation was performed on an alphabetic basis attempting as far as possible to achieve a sex balance and avoid conflicting personalities. The grouping was vertical with students usually coming from Years 8 to 11. There were roughly 16 students in each group. The groups as created could be refined to allow friends to be together. In the past these home groups or counselling groups had been derived by the use of sociograms but this complicated process had been replaced, in part because it was not successful. With respect to the allocation of teachers to such groups, at one stage an attempt was made to match teachers to particular groups of students but this also was considered a rather complicated system. The system in operation merely placed teachers with groups and if teachers had objections they could seek approval from the principal for changes. Some teachers kept the same group from one year to the next but it was generally considered desirable that students got to know a number of teachers.

The principal had expressed some reservations about the operation of the counselling/pastoral system. He felt many teachers were not able to adapt to this non-teaching role. At one stage there had been single hour sessions each day and guidelines for activities had been prepared by the student counsellors. These counsellors had spent time with the staff to assist them in this role. However, the staff had voted to modify the system. At present there was a 10 minute counselling session each morning with an additional 25 minute session on Wednesdays.

The principal had also expressed the view that the school, with 1200 students, was really too large to be able to develop fully caring structures aimed at teachers and students. In part, the development of the Mixed Faculty School reflected the belief of some teachers that their views were being lost in such a large school. The development of the decision-making structures was another response to the need to involve teachers fully in such a large school. The counselling groups had been developed to provide a small group pastoral system for students but this had not been completely successful. The issue of how to satisfy the pastoral and academic needs of students in very large schools is a problem the principal was well aware of. At Palmer, in addition to the

formal provision of student counsellors, and the school-based initiatives such as the Learning Assistance Programme which was discussed in Chapter 8 and the Alternative Mode which was designed for disillusioned senior students (discussed in a later section) the school encouraged involvement of students through their participation in decisions affecting them.

The three schools described above had all, to varying extents, used sub-school structures as part of a chain of pastoral care. Involved in this chain were special personnel, such as guidance officers, student welfare co-ordinators, sub-school co-ordinators and even sub-school secretaries, and contact or home groups of students. The executive staff of the school would have an overriding responsibility for these areas. In the other schools visited, although sub-school structures had not been designed to contribute towards a pastoral emphasis, a pastoral role was nevertheless present.

Brennan. One of the more interesting examples was Brennan School, an all-girls school. A survey of staff indicated that they placed highest priority upon aims related to traditional educational objectives pertaining to the development of knowledge and skills. Of much lower priority was the group of objectives relating to the emotional development of students. Despite this, however, the school had developed a comprehensive welfare orientation which involved the creation of positions with special responsibilities, and which also involved the teaching of special topics.

Each of the six year levels at Brennan was allocated an executive member, who co-ordinated administrative issues across that year level, and a year level teacher who was principally responsible for student welfare matters at that level. As well as fulfilling a general welfare role, the year level teacher conducted pastoral care oriented classes for the particular year level but did little other teaching at that level. This practice had developed at Brennan because of a concern that a substantial teaching contact with students of the year level could hinder the effectiveness of the pastoral role of the year level teacher. However, in order that the year level teacher and the executive member developed close relations with the year level, the school had developed the important complementary practice of encouraging both the teacher and the executive member to move with a year level through their stay at the school, at least up to Year 10; once having reached Year 10 the year level teacher resumed duties next year with the new Year 7 group while the executive member continued with the group through to Year 12. A further useful spin-off from this policy was the exposure of both teachers to the changing needs of students. The successful implementation of the policy however was greatly dependent upon low staff turnover. Each week the year level teacher and executive member met with other teachers from the year level. These meetings were principally concerned with administrative and student welfare issues as they related to each year level.

With respect to the welfare oriented classes, most students at Years 7-10

undertook one period per week each of pastoral care and personal development. The pastoral care sessions were conducted for each class by the year level teacher: these sessions were primarily concerned with assisting students to identify and overcome any personal problems which they may be experiencing, and since it was school practice for year level teachers to remain with their year level as they moved through the school, close teacher-student relationships were able to be established. The personal development classes were conducted at Years 8, 9 and 10 for one period per week, with the major teacher in this area being the senior teacher in charge of student welfare. The personal development course was designed to increase students' understanding of the biological, emotional and social implications of their development.

These curriculum responses of the school supplemented the more traditional student welfare role assigned to the form teacher who met briefly with the form each day, and whose role inevitably became principally administrative. The integration of student welfare issues into the curriculum could also be viewed as an attempt by the school to allocate teaching resources to an area that in more extensively staffed schools or schools with fewer 'problem' students would be dealt with on a more informal basis. An important element in the operation of the pastoral care and personal development courses at Brennan was that they were conducted by a small number of teachers with a strong commitment to the value of the courses.

The four year level teachers were paid a financial allowance for the additional responsibilities, and taught the same teaching load as other assistant teachers. Several of the year level teachers commented that for the effective performance of their student welfare role a time rather than a financial allowance would be more useful. This appeared to be particularly so because many of their pastoral duties could only be performed during school hours. A rough calculation would be that if the financial allowances paid for the year level teachers were pooled for the employment of additional staff, it would create an additional 0.25 of a teacher on the average assistant class teacher salary, which on an average assistant's teaching load of 27 periods would provide approximately seven relief periods or approximately two periods allowance for each of the year level teachers. Unfortunately schools in the main lack the authority to reorganize the configuration of their resources in such ways.

Other schools. The provision of pastoral care at Kendall College with its older students mainly took the form of curriculum advice. Although each teacher was responsible for a group which met for about 20 minutes each week (groups contained about 12 students, half nominally in Year 12) these group advisory sessions had been more involved in administrative matters relating to course selection than in overtly pastoral care issues. Similarly, although individual consultation was conducted by a group of staff under the direction of an assistant principal with help from a school counsellor, careers teacher and other teachers, this process also was mostly related to

course and career decisions. For more general pastoral issues a student counsellor was available.

At Dennis Technical School, the pastoral role was performed in two ways: special positions of year level co-ordinators had been developed and special provision was made for Year 7 students. There were two co-ordinators at each of Years 7 and 9, and one at each of Years 8, 10 and 11. The original aim was to have two staff (one male, one female) at each year level. Year level co-ordinators received four hours per week to fulfil their co-ordination duties: two hours being from reduced teaching loads and two from reduced non-teaching duties. Co-ordinators managed the allocation of students to classes (which would involve counselling students about their choice of elective subjects), were involved in matters of discipline and would be the first point of responsibility for student welfare (which would involve the monitoring of students' progress, reporting on students with problems, and organizing contact with parents). In addition the co-ordinators conducted a meeting with all students from the year level each week. All the year level co-ordinators believed that the time allowed for the duties involved was not sufficient.

With respect to Year 7 students, there were several features of the pastoral provision. There was a large physical education offering at this year level: the co-ordinator noted that this assisted in the 'settling-in' process for new students as it enabled form level competitions and activities to be organized to provide a social function as well as an educational one. In the past some preferential treatment had been given to this year level with more experienced staff being allocated. At present this no longer applied, but in practice there appeared to be a reasonably stable core of teachers who had chosen to teach at Year 7. At Year 7, also, the form teachers were chosen as far as possible from those humanities and mathematics teachers who would spend a large proportion of their teaching time with these students.

At both Paterson and Richardson, two very small schools, special pastoral provision was not seen as something necessary. Rather, it was considered that in such schools the environment, with close student-teacher relationships, was inevitably a very caring one. At Richardson, for example, staff believed that it was easy to get to know students well in a small school and as a result welfare provisions were informal rather than structured. The principal felt that formal welfare arrangements could often become stilted and artificial. The school co-operative evaluation had examined the issue of student welfare and made a number of recommendations concerning alterations to school rules, and a policy on standards of behaviour was presented. It was also suggested that the principal should become more active in the Student Council and that students should make more use of the Council to initiate changes. Generally the evaluation report concluded that there was high consideration for student welfare at all levels in the school.

Primary Schools

The issue of pastoral care in a primary school is generally considered to be a very different one from that at a secondary school. In the primary school the class teacher generally stays with the class throughout the year. It is in this relationship that the welfare role is expected to develop. The creation of home groups or special welfare co-ordinators is generally not seen as necessary. This viewpoint probably also reflects a slightly different view of the role of the primary school vis-a-vis the secondary school. The primary school, it is often argued, must treat the emotional and social development of the child as being equally important as intellectual development since the child is at school during those early formative years. The secondary school, on the other hand, can concentrate, so it is argued, on intellectual development. Although there is doubtless some truth in this distinction, it should not be viewed as pervasive. Secondary schools are concerned with the welfare role, as the many varied ways of providing for it have shown. In addition, given the earlier maturity of students and an apparent increasing number of students reacting against the institution of schooling, secondary schools are being forced to consider very carefully their role in meeting the intellectual and psychological needs of students, particularly those of older students. The establishment of secondary colleges, and the provision of alternative education for students in many ways is a direct reflection of the need for a varied approach to meet these differing needs.

In general, then, the primary schools' welfare emphasis is classroom based. Perhaps no better example of this was provided than at Mansfield School. In Chapter 6 the allocation of students to classes at Mansfield was described in detail. This allocation policy was designed to reflect the child-focused school philosophy which stressed the necessity to get as close to students as possible so as to understand their social, emotional and intellectual needs. The grouping of students in the senior syndicate was arranged to take account of academic, personal and social factors to maximize student development in all three areas. The pastoral role was then developed from the interrelationships of the students in the class and the special selection of teachers for each class.

At the other schools visited the classroom-based pastoral role was assumed even though the careful allocation to classes was less common. Two schools, perhaps, deserve special note. At Pritchard Intermediate School, where an attempt had been made to create a structure more akin to secondary schools, the amount of teaching in the home spaces was comparatively small (in one team it was estimated that a maximum of one-fifth of the total teaching time would occur in the home groups). This necessarily had implications for the traditional primary school welfare role. At Pritchard, however, home group teachers would take additional responsibility for monitoring the progress of students from their home group.

The other school, Boldrewood, had developed a sub-school structure to assist in the pastoral care of students. Three units had been developed, each taking students from Year K through to Year 7. During late 1979 an extensive evaluation of the effectiveness of the structure was conducted by a small team comprising teacher and parent representatives assisted by a staff member of a nearby tertiary institution. Through a combination of interview schedules and questionnaires the evaluation team sought the views of teachers, a 10 per cent sample of students, and 20 parents. On the basis of the responses of these groups, the evaluation team concluded that the achievements of the K-7 structure were:

- increased social interaction and awareness between teachers, between teachers and students, and between students, and
- a greater awareness by teachers of the K-7 concept in the areas of curriculum, methodology and philosophy.

The team concluded, however, that there was no evidence that the K-7 structure had developed parent/teacher interaction further, or increased teacher and student participation in decision making. A particular problem with the K-7 structure identified by most respondents was that of the noise levels operating within the units. This was partly attributed to the relatively noisy working pattern of young children and the adverse consequence of this for older students working in close proximity. The evaluation team recommended that for the K-7 structure to work effectively, considerable thought needed to be given to the allocation of students and teachers to the units and the allocation of teachers to classes within the units so as to achieve groupings that were as harmonious as possible. Furthermore, it was recommended that considerable teacher in-service education and parent education concerning the operation of the K-7 structure needed to be undertaken. There was some evidence, also, at this school that the different units had become isolated from each other: curricula varied and teachers were not necessarily taking classes to which they were best suited.

Summary

There was no doubt that in most of the secondary schools visited the pastoral role was seen as a distinctive role. Only at Brennan was an attempt made to build this into the teaching program but even here the teaching role was specifically allocated to one staff member. Kaye (1976) has questionned the extent to which personal development programs can be fully integrated into the curriculum, as such programs might become 'another non-assessable appendage to an existing predominantly academic educational program' (Kaye, 1976:185). At Brennan, however, there appeared to be a commitment to this type of program which was complemented by the attempts to generate links with parents and the community.

Richardson (1975) warns against role conflicts and divisiveness created by special

positions and special structures. At Lindsay such role conflict was in part present and schools like Lindsay had seen the necessity to create school co-ordinators to minimize the divisiveness of the sub-schools. At Boldrewood, however, there was evidence that the unit structure had led to a reduction in the coherence of the school. Perhaps only Lawson was satisfied with its counselling groups and here the student welfare co-ordinator had put in much effort to assist the class teachers in the activities of such groups. It was fairly common that such groups comprised students from several year levels, a pattern that went against most secondary school groupings. By all accounts most teachers and students found such grouping unnatural. The exceptions appeared to be Lawson and Kendall College and it is interesting that here students were grouped in composite classes for teaching purposes also. It would seem that if teachers generally are expected to carry the brunt of the welfare role the issue of appropriate pre-training or in-service training is raised. If, on the other hand, the role is to be given to specialist staff such as welfare co-ordinators or sub-school co-ordinators there are implications for teacher careers. There is in fact some evidence from the schools visited that teachers taking on these special roles are seeing them in some ways as a stepping stone for promotion but whether this would limit their future roles cannot be said.

It would appear from the schools visited that the issue of a dichotomy between pastoral care and academic teaching is one that is created in the secondary school. As students move away from the class teaching format of primary schools, schools perceive the need to develop some other forms of caring structures. In many of the secondary schools the common curriculum at Year 8 is in fact an attempt to keep the style of teaching similar in secondary schools to that which students are used to, so as to ease the transitional period. In many schools the first year secondary students were specially treated with respect to pastoral care.

The caring structures generated varied. The sub-school concept is an attempt to create the intimate environment of the small school with all the perceived advantages this creates. Lindsay operated a system primarily for these purposes and the difficulties faced by that school reflected constraints on the school from the system in which the school operated and from conflicting educational philosophies on the school staff. The school still believed it had improved the provision for pastoral care through this system and the problems it encountered would not necessarily exist elsewhere. This approach had been fairly costly, however, in resources both within the school and from without. The other structures such as contact groups or special personnel had all met with varying degrees of success.

The primary school concept of the close involvement of one teacher to one class is not easily transferable to the secondary school. At Palmer, through the policy that advocated the involvement of students in many school decisions, it was felt that students would generally be happier and the need for specific caring structures would be

minimized. It may be that it is along these lines that schools should be thinking rather than the separation of the pastoral and teaching role into distinct categories. This issue is taken up in the next section and in the following chapter on policy determination processes.

Student Participation in Curriculum Choice

Primary Schools

The only primary schools that had moved towards a secondary school philosophy with respect to giving students more choice in the activities in which they engaged were Pritchard and Mansfield. It was perhaps not surprising that this should have occurred in an intermediate school (Pritchard) as such schools are designed to bridge between primary and secondary education, and students' ages are roughly equivalent to Australian Years 6 and 7. At Pritchard, some progress appeared to have been made towards encouraging students to plan their own program of study under guidance from teachers. In one team a wall chart was used to indicate weekly activities for each student. A colour chart showed activities which were compulsory (red), self-planned (green), and cultural or enrichment (blue). In addition there were spaces for students to enter other activities. Students recorded from the wall chart in a log book their own program for a week and a teacher indicated in it when they had completed an activity. Another team also used a weekly wall chart. This contained a check list on which teachers would record those tasks which had been completed. Yet another team made use of planning sheets (diaries) which were issued to students for the recording of their program from a wall chart.

At Mansfield, the staff had attempted to involve students in decisions about curriculum issues and, although this did not involve choice of activities, students had assisted in the preparation of curriculum materials.

Secondary Schools

In the secondary sector, the involvement of students in curriculum choice usually involved the extent of choice they had over elective offerings. As a rule, where the school advocated a very general education this choice was greater, but this was not always the case as in other schools a greater variety of subjects could be placed as core offerings. In addition, some schools such as Lindsay offered a great variety of elective offerings but the overall amount of time going into electives was still very small. It is necessary therefore to distinguish between the concept of providing a general education and the concept of providing for extensive student input into curriculum decisions.

In the upper school student choice was generally governed by preferences for subjects for matriculation. Only English, in most States, is compulsory for such

students. Where alternative courses were offered the pattern of choice was different. In the lower school, the common pattern was for students to increase the proportion of teaching time going into the elective offerings from one year to the next (see Ainley, 1982). Four of the eight schools visited had a common core for their first year intake and one of these schools also had a common core for second year students. At both Paterson and Lindsay the extent of student choice from one year level to the next was, compared with the other schools visited, not great. These schools were both located in the same education system with a tradition of a more centralized curriculum. At Paterson, however, another influential factor was the small number of teachers available: the range of offerings at the school was in many ways wider than might have been expected given the constraints on the school.

Three schools visited were especially interesting with respect to the ways they had involved students in decisions about the curriculum: these were Palmer, Lawson and Kendall College.

Palmer. The philosophical approach towards students at Palmer School was summarized under the heading 'The Three Rs', which referred to respect (self-respect, respect for others, respect for property and environment), rights (to education, to express opinions, to have a hand in decisions), and responsibility (self-discipline, self-organization, self-motivation, responsibility towards society and towards the school). Specifically, the statement of school philosophy advocated that:

- students should be given opportunities in self-direction and self-selection of study topics;
- teachers should provide work which is fitted to the individual needs, interests and abilities of students;
- the school should assist all students to taste success but this should not be measured in comparison with the achievement of others; and
- teachers should be motivators and guides rather than merely instructors.

To implement this philosophy, the school had, among other things, developed a system of unscheduled time. The original staff had felt that it was important to involve students in decisions about their education, on the assumption that such involvement would lead to more effective learning, the development of a more responsible attitude, and the development of a more harmonious school climate. To achieve this, the school organized its curriculum with a wide range of subject choice as well as with an unscheduled time system. A number of constraints applied to the unscheduled time scheme: school work had to be done in this time; students, except those in Year 12, had to work in designated areas which were staffed on similar student:teacher ratios as timetabled lessons; and students had to plan the use of their unscheduled time and record it on a log card issued weekly. The system operated a little differently from one faculty to the next. For example, in the art faculty the students studying art-related subjects during their

unscheduled time would often be fitted into classes already running rather than treated as a separate group. This was possible because of the limited number of students doing these subjects. Overall up to 20 per cent of a student's time could be spent on unscheduled activities although the amount varied across year levels and across teaching groups.

The system had not always been universally accepted at the school and in 1979 the Humanities/English faculty, which was the main group expressing dissatisfaction, proposed to the staff council that the system be disbanded. Although this was rejected it was considered wise to investigate some of the claims made for and against the system. As a result an evaluation committee from the school, but assisted by the Education Department Research Section, was formed. The committee of seven teachers represented most faculties and although it assumed a non-judgmental role the data collected were to be presented to staff members to help them debate the issues. The committee did not pose the questions but rather asked staff to submit questions. The main committee examined the system at Years 8 to 11 and sub-committees examined Year 12, the aims and history of the system, and the use of the resource centre for unscheduled time activities. Data collection methods included student and teacher feedback sheets, examples of lessons working well or badly, observation, teacher diaries, interviews with staff and students, documents and submissions. A staff workshop was initiated to discuss the report and the committee summarized and collected the recommendations from this workshop which included recommendations to staff council, to the curriculum committee and to faculties. In all, the team spent about 50 hours of discussion in 17 meetings over two terms. Other time taken in sub-committees and other tasks would have doubled this. Thirty-two of these hours were taken outside school hours.

During the course of the evaluation, staff members were asked to expound more clearly the original philosophy behind the scheme. In addition to the aim of generating the involvement of students in decision making about their own program, according to submissions, it was hoped that the scheme would, amongst other things:

- permit timetable flexibility through providing more curriculum options;
- provide opportunities for individual progression;
- broaden student-teacher contact at a more informal level;
- allow students to work individually or in small groups;
- allow the continuity of friendship groups.

There was general consensus in the school that the declared aims of the scheme were worthwhile, however there were mixed reactions concerning the extent to which the staff members and students felt the system achieved these aims. Responses to the critical incident sheets filled out by teachers indicated that successful lessons required amongst other things that students had clear ideas of what work they wished to do in

unscheduled time and that classes contained less than 20 students. The attitude of students was also considered to be an important factor in contributing towards, or in making more difficult the creation of, a positive environment. Student responses generally supported these findings, but Year 12 students were overall somewhat pessimistic about the success of the unscheduled time scheme and felt that scheduled lessons were more successful. Another problem reported by staff related to students not having their work with them if they had been signed out from other areas of the school because of space shortages.

The principal felt that in addition to the reforms to the system as a result of the evaluation, the hidden value of the evaluation in making people look again at their philosophies and styles was important. He felt morale had been lifted. The changes to be made in the scheme were:

- reduction of the variations between students in the amount of unscheduled time - the widest variation within a year level in 1981 was two periods in Year 10;
- timetabling to prevent more than two unscheduled periods together in a daily timetable;
- the use of the resource centre as an unscheduled work place at the student's choice;
- increased counsellor checks over students' planning of unscheduled time;
- the unscheduled plan of each student to be printed on his log card;
- a re-emphasis of the role of the teacher in such periods stressing that he is not to be a 'baby sitter'.

In addition to the unscheduled time at Palmer, the operation of the timetable provided students with a great deal of choice. The 'option' subjects were either built on to a line structure (three lines operating at Years 8 and 9 and four lines at Year 10), or they were formally timetabled but not all teaching groups took such subjects (for example, French and German at Year 8 and Year 9, commerce and typing at Year 10) or even at Year 10 two subjects were formally timetabled together and students were able to choose one of them, a system similar to a line structure (for example, art/design was linked with German and shorthand was linked with commerce). In addition, the range of optional subjects at Palmer presented students with interesting possibilities enabling them either to broaden their interests or to specialize more in certain areas. For example, at Year 8 additional art and humanities subjects were offered and at Year 10 there were even additional science and mathematics subjects offered. Coupled with the unscheduled time system which enabled further specialization, the timetable structure at Palmer provided a flexible system that could be geared to individual needs.

A further input to the amount of student choice in matters relating to the curriculum which was discussed in Chapter 8 was the concept of contract teaching that was employed in the Mixed Faculty School which enabled students to participate in the choice of the curricula to be taught.

Lawson. At both Lawson and Kendall, a system of term-based units was used to increase the breadth in the curriculum offerings, and give students a great deal of choice. At Lawson this system operated in the middle school which catered for students in Years 8, 9 and 10. Each term students studied seven units each involving four 50-minute periods per week. The units were offered from eight faculties in the school: language (including both English and foreign languages), art, homecrafts (including woodwork as well as home economics and textiles), performing arts (music, physical education, drama and film), humanities, mathematics, sciences, and commerce. All units were classified into two levels of difficulty: basic (stage 1) or advanced (stage 2). On satisfactory completion of a stage 1 unit a student was credited with one point, and for a completed stage 2 unit the student was credited with two points. Generally Year 8 students would be enrolled in stage 1 units, most Year 10 students would undertake a majority of stage 2 units, and Year 9 students would be engaged with a mixture of stage 1 and stage 2 units with progessively more stage 2 work towards the end of that year, as recommended by class teachers.

It is important to note that each student's program was not an unstructured selection from a diverse range of units. There was a program of guidance and consultation through which a student's course was planned. Furthermore, there was a set of requirements which needed to be met in planning each student's course. In order to complete the middle school course a student was required to accumulate a minimum total of 70 points which was roughly equivalent to satisfactorily completing three-quarters of all units attempted. Within this general structure there were some additional requirements:

1 All students had to begin by taking four consecutive terms of mathematics and English units and thereafter had to take two terms of mathematics and English each year.

2 All students were required to score a minimum of six points in each faculty, to achieve a reasonable breadth of course.

3 Within mathematics and English there existed a structured sequence of units with patterns of prerequisite studies. In other faculties prerequisites were specified for some stage 2 units.

4 For students to be admitted to Year 11 it was necessary to complete satisfactorily a specified advanced level unit from English (which had consequent effects on the choice of studies preceding that unit).

Beyond these general requirements specific Year 11 subjects had defined prerequisites which required students intending to undertake particular courses of study in the senior school to plan their middle school studies carefully.

Table 9.1 Points Acquired in Each Faculty Area by Twelve Students at Lawson High School, 1979

Student	Area									Total
	Maths	Lang.	Hum.	Sci.	Comm.	Perf.Arts.	Art.	H/craft	Activ.	
A	15	15	13	12	9	6	7	10	9	95
B	13	11	12	11	8	8	8	8	9	88
C	15	13	14	7	7	8	5	6	9	84
D	11	12	8	7	10	10	13	6	7	84
E	11	9	6	8	12	8	8	5	8	75
F	7	13	10	6	9	8	6	6	7	72
G	9	14	10	12	3	6	7	4	6	71
H	10	8	11	9	7	7	6	5	6	69
I	9	11	4	9	7	2	7	4	3	58
J	5	8	9	5	9	2	8	4	6	56
K	5	1	3	2	0	14	5	8	6	44
L	2	4	3	0	4	2	7	3	3	28

In Table 9.1 the points acquired in each faculty area together with the total points gained by a sample of students have been recorded. The sample was chosen to include a range of different achievement levels. It can be seen that the effect of the requirements governing choice of units was to ensure a reasonable breadth of course. Within this requirement there was variation in emphases on different faculty areas by different students. In discussing these examples the gaining of ten or more points from a faculty has been taken as an indication of a major emphasis in that area. As examples, take the four students who had gained many more than the minimum points required. Students A and B had placed an emphasis in their choice of studies on mathematics, languages, humanities and science. Student C followed a similar emphasis with the exception that a minimum amount of science was taken. Student D followed a rather different type of course, adding to substantial studies in mathematics and languages an emphasis on art, performing arts and commerce. The four students (E, F, G and H), who had acquired close to the minimum points required, provided slightly different course patterns. Among all of this group, there was some failure in mathematics units which accounted for the fewer points obtained in that faculty area. Student E had placed an emphasis on studies in commerce, student F had extended his studies in the area of languages and humanities, student G had languages and science as major areas of study, while student H gained points more generally across all faculty areas. In general this group of students, compared with the first, had undertaken fewer stage 2 units (the first group had commenced stage 2 units early in Year 9) and had recorded more failures in the units they had studied. Student E had failed, or repeated, six units out of 54 which had been studied with most of these failures being in stage 2 units. Thirty-two of the 75 points were gained at stage 2 which meant that 22 units were attempted at this level with 32 being taken from stage 1.

Four students recorded in Table 9.1 did not achieve the required number of points. Students I and J were a little below the required standard. Student I had failed units across most faculties while student J had not succeeded in stage 1 mathematics and science units. Both had not completed requirements in performing arts and homecrafts. Students K and L were apparently weak. In the courses taken by these students there was recorded a number of repetitions of basic mathematics units as well as unsatisfactory performances in other areas. Each had achieved some success in performing arts and art respectively.

Assessment was made at the end of each term and student attainment was graded as satisfactory or not satisfactory. If a student was graded as not satisfactory there might have been a requirement to repeat the unit, either immediately or later, or it might simply be replaced with an alternative unit. In addition to the basic classification an optional record of standard could be indicated by a literal grade (A/B/C). It would appear that teachers were more prepared to grade work as not satisfactory if it applied to one unit rather than a whole year subject. To the extent that this applied, it made for more realistic assessments to be recorded. In total about 20 per cent of students did not acquire the necessary 70 points in three years in middle school. Most of those who continued for a fourth year in middle school achieved the 70 points and then either left or proceeded to Year 11. Some left school and a few did not obtain 70 points even after the additional year. For some students it was possible to devise a mixed Year 11 and Year 10 course which enabled the middle school requirements to be completed.

It appears, both from examining the documents prepared to support the introduction of this structure and from interviews with those involved in its implementation, that the prime arguments were educational and curriculum arguments rather than administrative arguments. The present structure was implemented in the mid-seventies after some two years of debate. It was developed in response to a belief that the then existing pattern of traditional subjects (most of which were 'core' with a few electives) was not providing an educational experience suitable for most students. It was argued that this was reflected in the perceived level of commitment and in relatively low retention rates to the senior school. Five alternatives were presented: modify the existing structure, adopt an integrated studies approach based on themes, develop separate disciplines studies, introduce an open curriculum with little structure, or develop a linked discipline studies model. It was the fifth of these approaches which formed the basis of subsequent debate.

Several elements have been advanced in support of the middle school curriculum. In early proposals it was supported on the basis that it provided a general education which ensured a student gained some experience of each of the major fields of knowledge and which was flexible enough to cope with variations of interests and rates of development, and to allow for the incorporation of new content. As the scheme

developed the rationale became more explicit. Concerning students it was argued that:

1 individually structured courses could be provided to match students' interests, aspirations and abilities; (It is worth noting that in this structure the school was able to provide for gifted students, by special units and accelerated progress, and for students needing remedial work, by special units and more study of stage 1 units, without separating those students from the main program.)

2 students would be more strongly motivated to study courses they had chosen themselves and for which they could see short-term goals;

3 students were involved in making decisions about their futures in a supportive environment where mistakes could be rectified; and

4 failure in a unit did not result in repeating a whole year but merely the particular unit, and students could then take an alternative equivalent unit rather than repeat the same.

With regard to teachers in the school it was argued that:

1 it was possible to specify more clearly short-term goals for the units being provided;

2 preparation could be improved as units were repeated and refined in subsequent terms;

3 motivation was increased as teachers designed units to match their interests; and

4 class control was easier as the groups of students placed together in any one unit could be adjusted to prevent undesirable combinations of students.

In addition it was claimed that there were organizational advantages to this structure which had indirect benefits for students and teachers. The main organizational advantages claimed were that:

1 the timetable based on blocks of units was relatively easy to devise;

2 class sizes could be adjusted to allow for the nature of content, the materials and room required;

3 it was possible to schedule all four lessons for a class in the same room and in almost all cases classes could be scheduled in the appropriate specialist room;

4 staff changes at the end of each term were less disruptive of the curriculum;

5 the flexibility of the curriculum was increased as new ideas could be readily introduced, trials conducted and revisions made; and

6 the balancing of staff allotments was easier and the incorporation of appropriate allowances for management tasks rationalized.

Kendall. The situation at Kendall College was somewhat different, as it was a college for Years 11 and 12 students only. With the establishment of colleges, it was contended that they should provide options suited to those who wished to continue to advanced education, to those who might pursue other forms of further education, to those who wished to pursue non-vocational cultural and creative studies, and to those who wished to undertake various combinations of these three categories. Within this general background, it was planned that a wide diversity of courses would be available with no courses being compulsory.

An important feature of the curriculum at Kendall College was that it was not based on year-length subjects; rather it was organized around standard units of one term's duration which were allocated four hours per week of instructional time. Each course which was offered consisted of combinations of units in a discipline or interdisciplinary area. It was possible to study a minor course (three units) or a major course (five units). Major-minor courses (eight units) or double majors (ten units) were additional possibilities. In addition students could plan their selection to balance appropriately units which made up courses that were accredited and units which were registered but not accredited by an agency outside the college. The latter most commonly provided broader enrichment activities.

Students selected each term the units which they would study with the goal of completing certain courses. Normally between four and six units would be studied each term. Hence, while units were the basic building blocks of the curriculum, students' programs were planned around courses which were combinations of units. Outside of these courses students could study discrete units. In 1979 there were at Kendall a total of 87 different

courses accredited, 69 of which were tertiary accredited. As well as these there was a number of registered courses (about 40) usually offered in the form of single units. Perhaps a better indication of the variety available can be obtained from the number of units being taught. In Term 1 1980 there were about 200 classes in accredited units of which some 120 were in different units. Additionally there were 37 classes in registered units of which about 25 were in different topics.

The manner in which units were grouped into courses varied between faculties. In some, all units were compulsory in a given course with a particular sequence specified while in others there was a wide range of choice with few prerequisites. Two examples of different patterns existed in the English and mathematics faculties. English units were grouped in five stages, each stage being progressively more demanding than the preceding one. There was a total of 42 units listed of which one was stage one, seven were stage two, 10 were stage three, 15 were stage four, and nine were stage five. Eleven of the total of 42 units were concerned with communication and the remaining 31 comprised topics in literature. All students were advised to study a major course in English. This necessitated at least one unit from each of stages three, four and five, at least two literature units, and at least three 'full' English units. Because of this latter provision students could include one history/English interdisciplinary unit, a drama unit or a unit of media studies as part of an English major. Other combinations of units could be used to build other courses in English.

Mathematics units were structured around five defined sequences extending over six terms though some sequences could be completed in five terms. The sequences varied in extent and depth of mathematics studied, from sequence one which was

intended for students of high mathematics ability (intending to pursue studies in mathematics at tertiary level), to sequence five which was a terminal course in mathematics for students of average or less than average mathematical background. For each sequence there was a carefully defined and structured set of units specified from the 33 half units offered by the mathematics department. In addition to these it would be possible to complete a minor course.

In summary, at Kendall the range of curriculum offerings was broad and there was considerable flexibility in the way units could be combined to structure courses. Some units would not always be available because of the limitations of resources. The planning of which units to offer at any time was therefore an important resource allocation decision.

Curriculum Counselling

A common feature of all three schools was the necessity to provide careful student curriculum counselling so that the choice of units, or work in unscheduled time, did not become an unco-ordinated mixture. In all schools, of course, student guidance is of importance but in systems which advocate a wide curriculum and large student input to decisions the counselling becomes even more important.

Kendall. At Kendall there were three structures through which this advice was provided: group advisory sessions, individual consultation, and faculty advice. The advisory groups were organized for pastoral purposes but in practice concentrated on curriculum advice. Each teacher was responsible for an advisory group which met for about 20 minutes each week. These groups contained about 12 students each. They were structured so that about half the students were nominally in Year 12. It was intended that with this arrangement, advice from more experienced to less experienced students would be facilitated. Students were assigned to groups conducted by teachers who taught them in first term. As a result of this policy they tended to contain students following similar types of program. Individual consultation with students about courses, and maintaining students' records of progress in courses were managed by a group of teachers working under the direction of an assistant principal. The assistant principal spent most of his time involved in these functions. The group consisted of one school counsellor (0.8 equivalent full-time), a full-time careers teacher and four other teachers who each spent one-quarter of their time in this group. They were assisted by a clerical assistant who spent one-quarter of her time in this area. The group was the focus of the counselling and administrative work associated with students' programs. It was linked to the faculty heads and to advisory groups as part of the program advice network throughout the college. Advice to students about their program was also provided through faculties under the auspices of the faculty heads. This source of advice was more frequently concerned with the structure of courses within that faculty but needed to take cognizance of the requirements of other areas also.

It was estimated that at Kendall nine per cent (92 hours) of teacher time was allocated to administrative, counselling, and advisory functions, additional to the group advisory sessions which involved about 18 teacher hours per week. Most of this time was allocated as a decision of the school so that its program could run effectively. In effect it had decided to use available teacher time in this way rather than have classes which were 10 per cent smaller.

Palmer. At Palmer, the counselling load was shared between individual teachers in the course of their normal teaching, faculty senior teachers, deputies, careers/guidance teachers and the group counsellors. These groups have already been described in an earlier section concerning their input to pastoral issues. They were also considered to have a very important input into course counselling, and in fact the result of the unscheduled evaluation recommended a greater input into counselling students about their use of this time as some concern had been expressed over planning students' work. Counselling students on the transition from Year 10 to Year 11 , and from Year 11 to Year 12, was based upon the following schedule devised by the schools.

> We intend to take as much time as is needed and will, therefore, start our placement procedures in the light of Term 2 results rather than the traditional Term 3, while reserving the right to make adjustments as a result of the work done in Term 3. This will give us all of Term 3 to consult students, parents, and teachers instead of a hectic fortnight at the end of the year, yet will allow modification of placement in those rare cases where the standard of work in Term 3 differs radically from that of the first two and two-thirds years.

Lawson. At Lawson, the direct point at which counselling was provided was the home group, and the home group teachers were responsible for providing this advice. Some effort had gone into staff development in this area so that home group teachers would be aware of the requirements of Years 11 and 12, and of the way in which coherent programs could be structured. It also appeared necessary that home group teachers were aware of the structure of disciplines other than their own. Two alternatives being considered at Lawson to improve its system of course planning were to develop further the ability of home group teachers in this area, or to restrict course planning to a few teachers who were thoroughly cognizant of the varied requirements involved. The first of these two alternatives probably had greater long-term advantages and was more consistent with the general goals of the school.

A second important feature of the structure was that it recognized the need for co-ordination, through sub-school and staff co-ordinators, to ensure that it was being implemented in the way intended. This sort of structure involved an explicit recognition of the role of the school in planning individually for student needs through the formal allocation of resources to this task. A third feature which was important to the success of the structure was that each faculty was able to articulate its requirements for student

progress. Some disciplines in which the development of knowledge was sequential might involve a carefully structured series of alternative tracks through the available units. The mathematics faculty at Lawson had elaborated such a scheme and the language faculty had a similar but less tightly structured scheme. Other faculties had rather fewer prerequisites and generally wider choices were possible.

Finally, a structure such as this needed to evolve a system of reporting which was intelligible to those unfamiliar with it. It probably needed reports which indicated the extent of studies and standards achieved in each of the eight faculty areas rather than the detailed records which listed the units satisfactorily completed.

Lindsay. Although Lindsay School did not have a great deal of student choice in the selection of subjects, the system whereby optional choices made in the early years were likely to be followed through meant that counselling was as important at the lower school as at the upper school level. At Lindsay, there were several counselling mechanisms available for students and parents. The course selection sheets provided some guidelines, and in addition the school guidance officer was available to offer assistance on matters such as the relation between course selection and achievement levels, vocational guidance (in liaison with the youth education officer), and on personal problems. In addition, counselling was considered to be part of the role of the sub-school co-ordinators, contact teachers and subject teachers. At the final level, there were the senior administrative personnel. Guidance would be given to students but if the student insisted, with his parents' backing, on taking an option which the school had counselled against, the wishes of the student or parent would be accepted. Although the hierarchies for counselling might not be clearly laid out the opportunities for assistance to be given to students were readily available. This aspect of curriculum organization was not viewed as a problem, rather it was felt that all students would feel free to approach some staff members knowledgeable with their progress.

Summary

The decision about the involvement of students in curriculum matters is basically an issue of school philosophy. If a school takes the view that such involvement is not to the student's benefit then schemes will be pre-judged. It would seem, however, in a situation where students are maturing earlier and where, according to research literature, they are wishing for more involvement in decisions at school (see Sturman, 1979), these schemes should be given careful consideration. At Lawson, Palmer and Kendall, the view adopted was that to involve students in decisions was likely to lead to a more satisfactory learning environment. The ways in which the philosophy was put into practice varied between the schools. At Palmer, the unscheduled system was the main vehicle for achieving this, but in addition the negotiated curriculum in the Mixed Faculty

School and the timetable arrangements reducing the amount of time that traditional core subjects were studied fostered this philosophy. At Kendall and Lawson the term-based electives provided the vehicle for student input.

The schools visited were very satisfied with the structures they had adopted: the unscheduled system had been evaluated and reformed and the term-based electives well established at the schools. Common to both practices was the need for careful student curriculum counselling. In all schools, this is of importance but, in a system which advocates a wide curriculum and large student input to decisions, counselling becomes even more important. The three schools had a fairly well-developed system of counselling to meet these needs, a system to which they have been prepared to devote a good deal of resources.

Transition Education Programs

One of the key educational issues of the present decade is likely to be the relationship between school and work. In recent years, the extent of youth unemployment has aroused marked concern among politicians, academics, professionals and the community at large. Inevitably, the role of the school in the transition from school to work has become the subject of considerable interest:

> For some, the problems of youth unemployment are laid at the feet of the educational system; for others, schools are seen merely as a scapegoat for what is primarily a political problem requiring a political solution. (Sturman, 1979:7)

The increasing government concern over the education/work interface has been shown by the Commonwealth Government's School to Work Transition Program introduced in 1979. The statement announced that over a five-year period $150 million would be made available to the States for the development of a comprehensive policy for helping young people make the transition from school to work. Coupled with this initiative has been the increasing provision of careers teachers to secondary schools throughout Australia.

In this section it is not intended to review all of the facets of the school-work interface, but rather to focus on one or two special schemes that schools had developed to meet the needs of a small group of students they considered both to be in need of help in this area and to have developed attitudes towards school that made success in traditional schooling unlikely. In a situation where jobs are scarce it is not an unlikely prediction that the population of schools will change somewhat in the senior years.

Palmer

Palmer School provided a program called an Alternative Mode. The Alternative Mode was introduced in 1980 for Year 11 and Year 12 students. In the 'Courses and Organization' handbooks prepared for those year levels it was stated:

The present socioeconomic climate has meant a greater percentage of senior students are remaining at school. Many of these students are 'turned-off' by school and would prefer to be spending their time looking for work or trying to find a more meaningful outlet within school or the wider community. Hence an alternative education program is offered at Palmer High School for senior secondary students for whom the full Year 11 and Year 12 programs seem inappropriate.

The aims of the Alternative Mode were stated as:

- to develop a learning environment which caters as far as possible for the needs and interests of the people involved - for example: to provide opportunity for students to gain knowledge and skills to improve employment prospects, to make more effective use of leisure time and to become more self-sufficient;
- to develop an open, congenial atmosphere of co-operation and consideration for others between staff and students; and
- to help students develop a positive self-image and as such help each student realize their worth as an individual and as a person who can make valuable contributions to the school and the wider community.

The scheme developed from a more informal structure when three years previously the principal had allowed a small group of students who were truanting fairly frequently to opt for those subjects and teachers with which they wished to be involved. In line with this, other members of staff attended an 'Open Education Group' course at another school and in doing so met other teachers involved with similar practices. The present scheme evolved out of these threads. Initially it was highly structured, but this seemed to result in disenchantment as much as formal schooling so a more informal structure evolved to enable the students themselves to make decisions. The present scheme gave students considerable autonomy: much of the work they did was outside of school, and they had the use of and managed a small building.

The course itself which was introduced in 1980 was varied, involving community and work activities (for example, work in creches or primary schools) as well as school activities. In deciding what courses should be offered, the first consideration was their inherent motivational value, second their capacity to develop social skills and third their usefulness for job preparation. A further consideration was providing students with activities suitable to their leisure time. The principal, in general terms rather than specifically to do with the Alternative Mode, stressed the value of creative activities in the school as he saw the importance of equipping students with skills of use for leisure activities. The Alternative Mode offered a choice to participate in matriculation or senior school certificate courses, as well as to participate in 'alternative courses' such as work experience, link courses, pre-apprentice courses and community service programs. Students might also study Year 11 courses in which they had not previously participated (e.g. personal typing), become involved in specially designed courses or even assist in school maintenance activities. In the case of courses at school, students were expected to enter into contracts with teachers concerning attendance at lessons.

The selection of students varied but the guiding criterion was an inability to participate fully in a normal course at their age level. Because of the need for individualized programs, a group ratio of 1:15 was recommended. Initial selection was determined by counselling and consequent staff recommendation but final inclusion required full agreement between parents (who were continually consulted), students and staff involved. In addition to the practical organization of courses the Alternative Mode involved informal counselling. Three volunteer members of staff participated in the scheme although one of them only had responsibility for the work experience component of it. The other two staff members were involved part-time in the Alternative Mode making altogether one equivalent full-time person. Counselling was mainly geared to changing attitudes, both those of students and of other members of staff. With regard to students it was aimed at increasing self-confidence and self-respect. With regard to other staff members, there appeared to be a constant need for communication as the scheme had received some criticism as a new and very different scheme. The principal saw it as part of his role to act as a mediator in this process.

The 1980 course began with about 45 students (of whom about one-quarter were girls) that by third term had been reduced to about 13. All but one of the others had found employment and the remaining student had moved back into full-time schooling. One of the teachers involved felt that the decline in numbers could be used as a measure of success but that the important thing to him was the perceived change in student attitudes. Staff involved considered the Alternative Mode very much as a palliative, and that such systems were really needed at all levels of the school. The problem was that, with education department restrictions on staff which would affect Palmer School in 1981, it was likely to be the schemes requiring most staff that would be threatened. The principal was concerned that the 'caring' aspects of the school and the 'creative' offerings at the school were the areas likely to be curtailed.

Lindsay. Lindsay School also offered an 'alternative' course which was school certificated at the end of Year 11. The aims of the course were:

- to give students an awareness of what could be expected of them when they move to the working world;
- to assist the student to cope with society and become a worthy and respected citizen;
- to tailor an educational program satisfying for the student and at his ability level.

The three areas of the course included: up to three academic subjects offered to students who had shown competence in Years 8 - 10, a list of alternative subjects including English, community dynamics, mathematics, science and general business studies, and some interest subjects. For example, most students would study cooking as well as a series of one-term courses in first aid, driver education and car maintenance.

Table 9.2 Number (Equivalent Full-time) and Type of Specialist Staff, 1980

	Art or Craft	Physical education	Home economics	Teacher librarian	Special or remedial education	Music or ballet	Reading or language
Mansfield	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Marsh	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pritchard	4.0	-	1.0	-	-	-	-
Clarke	-	1.0	-	1.0	1.0	1.0	-
Morant	0.2	-	-	0.2	-	-	-
Boldrewood	-	-	-	1.0	1.0	0.2	2.0
Franklin	1.0	0.4	-	1.0	0.3	1.1	-
Rudd	0.3	-	-	1.0	2.0[a]	-	0.3
Paterson	0.2	-	-	-	-	0.2	-

[a] These two staff were appointed over and above the normal entitlement to deal with ten students with impaired hearing.

Selected students might be offered indenture, that is, being assigned to a particular teacher for a certain time each week, in order to develop self-discipline, responsibility and inter-personal competence. Work experience would also be arranged when suitable. Because of the intended individual assistance given to students it was noted that numbers entering the course might have to be limited, and acceptance would be subject to interview.

The important point about both of these courses was their fairly high resource implication. If education departments wish schools to be more involved in these alternative schemes the resource issue cannot be ignored. For schools to offer such courses without additional resources being forthcoming, it follows that either class sizes elsewhere are increased, or that teachers have less non-contact time, or that the curriculum offerings are pruned elsewhere. Additional resource inputs were necessary to provide the flexibility that a school like Palmer needed.

The two schemes described above relate to a special group of students. Given present economic circumstances, however, career education is an important issue for all students at school. However there has been little attempt to deal seriously with the issue of unemployment in career education programs.

Work experience programs can play an important role in schooling. They are well appreciated by students and enable students to have a range of experiences that might help them in their career decision making. Of the eight secondary schools visited four had work experience programs. It should be pointed out, though, that these schemes have resource implications. They require good planning and co-ordination between schools and employers. Opportunities should be provided for the students to benefit on their return to school by integrating their experiences into career education courses. These programs should not be used to remove problem children from classrooms or to reward achieving children, and wherever possible they should not reinforce sex stereotyping within occupations. Work experience is valuable but only if meaningful work experiences, tailor-made for individual needs, can be provided.

Specialist Teaching in Primary Schools

The manner in which specialist teaching is conducted in primary schools is closely dependent on the education department's staffing policies. Where the formulae allocate specialist staff the role of the class teacher is altered. Table 9.2 shows the number and type of different specialist staff allocated to the different schools.

Mansfield

In the two New Zealand schools, Marsh and Mansfield, there were no specialist staff available and as a result all specialist teaching was the class teachers' responsibility. However, to assist in the specialist program some special arrangements were made

in both schools. At Mansfield, as noted in a previous chapter, it was policy for most teachers to be given a resource role, to capitalize on their talents as well as to provide them with responsibilities. One teacher had a reading resource role, another handwriting and social studies, as well as acting as a music specialist in the school, and yet another teacher had overall responsibility for mathematics as well as sports. Other teachers held resouce roles in art and the library (all classes spent 30 minutes a week in the library). It was only in the junior syndicate, where traditionally the senior teacher was a generalist, that one of two teachers did not have specific roles. It was expected that if needed teachers would give assistance (for example in the selection of resource material) to other teachers in their resource areas.

Marsh

Similarly, at Marsh use was made of the specialist knowledge of different teachers to provide specialist teaching. For example in the senior area of the school teachers would take units in their specialities and one teacher took junior students for music lessons. In addition, parent help was available in music as none of the teachers at the school had special skills in reading music. Even in the junior areas where there was little class movement, some use was occasionally made of the specialist knowledge of other teachers for particular units, and on other occasions all students would be together for physical education, music and swimming. The existence of a large open-space hall facilitated some team teaching in these areas.

In connection with the specialist program at Marsh, mention should be made of the reading scheme. In 1979, in conjunction with 16 other local schools two full-time itinerant teachers of reading were employed to be shared between these schools. To achieve this, each school including Marsh contributed a component of 0.1 of a teacher's time in order to undertake reading duties and the remaining 0.4 was made up through the Education Board. These teachers were chosen by a sub-committee of the Principals' Association, the selection being recommended to the district senior inspector. Appointments were usually of very capable teachers of reading and language from local schools and they worked with the teachers of the Reading Clinic. The itinerant teachers spent all their time in schools with teachers. However, in 1980 the school had lost this resource and relied on visits by appointment from the Reading Clinic teacher. The clinic served 23 schools with one staff member based at the clinic and a team of itinerant teachers visiting the schools. The itinerant teachers worked either directly with students, in the class or more frequently on a withdrawal basis, or through guidance to teachers. As demands on their time were increasing, they were relying more on providing guidance to teachers. In part, as a response to the loss of the special reading teachers mentioned above, at Marsh two other special reading programs had evolved in 1980. These schemes were discussed in Chapter 7.

Pritchard

The most generous specialist provision was that at Pritchard Intermediate School where specialists were available in art, home economics, needlework, woodwork and metalwork. These were secondary trained teachers allocated to the schools to provide an education more akin to that provided in secondary schools.

Franklin

The school with the greatest range of specialist staff was Franklin. That the school was able to operate such a wide specialist program to meet its perceived needs was a reflection of the way teachers were allocated to primary schools in that system. Even though Franklin Primary School had most of its staff allocated to it under a formula, it was able to exercise some influence over the type of staff it had by three methods:

- employing additional part-time staff from allocated funds;
- requesting special appointments as discretionary appointments either from regional office or the central special education section; and
- negotiating for the appointment of some specified staff in exchange for general class teachers.

Music was an important part of the school program and its enrichment activities. It was provided in two ways: teaching of whole classes and withdrawal of groups for special tuition. The music program was mainly taken as separate from the general classroom program. In the infant section each class would come to the music room for one half-hour session each week and in addition they had some singing as part of the general program with their class teacher. In the upper primary section of the school each class level had two such half-hour music lessons but these classes would not do as much additional musical activity in their normal classroom. For music lessons those classes would move to the room set aside for music. Fifteen hours of the music teacher's week would be occupied in these lessons. Students who wished to extend their music studies could participate in the school choir and school orchestra. For these activities they would be withdrawn from their classes on a regular basis for two hours each week. Students would also be withdrawn for specialist tuition in musical instruments by the part-time teachers though sometimes these lessons were arranged before and after school.

Art was provided in an innovative way intended to integrate better this activity with the general curriculum. In the infant section of the school (Years K to 2), the art teacher spent one day each week in classes working with the class teacher. This approach was intended to ensure that art was integrated with the rest of the program in these classes. Prior to 1980 the art program in the primary section of the school (Years 3 to 6) had been provided as a discrete entity. Intact class groups would move to the art and craft room for one one-hour lesson each week. Under this arrangement the art

program had been more oriented to the development of skills than to being a focus of the whole class program. In 1980 a new approach was initiated by the art teachers after consulting the principal and other staff, so that a better balance between skills development and curriculum integration could be achieved. Art was organized around a five-week cycle for each class. The first three weeks would provide, as previously, an hour of art each week for each class. The remaining two weeks would involve the art teacher and the class teacher working together in longer blocks of time on topics related to other class work. To arrange these 'art integration' sessions, teachers would book the services of the art teacher for a suitable time and consult with her regarding books, written material, and assignments which had been used with the class on the topic concerned. Occasionally the time would be used for more extended art taken separately in the art room. It was an interesting arrangement which seemed to work well. It was limited only by the time available to one specialist art teacher.

The physical education program was provided as a discrete entity by a specialist teacher who attended the school for two days each week. As part of this program each class had one half-hour lesson in physical education each week. It would be difficult to integrate this work with class teaching given that the teacher concerned was at the school on a part-time basis only.

Boldrewood

At Boldrewood, of particular interest among the specialist staff members were the multicultural education teachers and the special education teacher. In 1980, each of the three units had the services of a part-time multicultural education (MCE) teacher. Such teachers were appointed to schools largely on the basis of the proportion of students in the school population from a non-English-speaking home background. The MCE teachers had undertaken specialist post-graduate work in multicultural education and their major role was to assist with the language development of students with language difficulties. At Boldrewood the two MCE teachers worked within the units to which they were attached and shared the MCE teaching in the third unit. Approximately 35 students from each unit were involved, each student for a total of about two hours per week. The general form of interaction was for the MCE teacher to withdraw either an individual student or a group of up to 10 students from their normal class activities and to engage in intensive language development work with those students. While the MCE teachers conceded that the openness of the design of the units created particular noise problems for the conduct of language development programs, in general they were reluctant to utilize the special withdrawal areas because they saw as important the need for students not to become segregated from the operation of the rest of the unit. In addition to the teaching of English as a second language, the MCE teachers engaged in school-wide

activities to raise the general level of consciousness of the student body about the importance of multicultural issues.

Unlike primary schools in a number of other education systems, almost none of the teacher appointments to Boldrewood were subject area specialists. The only such specialists in 1980 were the teacher librarian, the half-time Greek language teacher and the one-fifth time visiting ballet teacher. Each class in the school had a regular weekly period of library work varying in length from 40 minutes to one hour. In some cases the class teacher accompanied the class for the library lesson while in others the class teacher utilized the library time for preparation and correction activities. The Greek language and ballet classes were only attended by students with special interests in these areas. Other subject areas such as music, art and physical education were the responsibility of the general class teacher. The conduct of such subjects varied from unit to unit and from teacher to teacher. In some cases for example, one or two class teachers would take a specialist activity such as physical education or music for a large number of students from within a unit or across units, while in other cases individual class teachers conducted such activities only for their own particular class.

Clarke

At Clarke, the specialist programs consisted of teaching in music, physical education, library and special education. Art and craft teaching, which in other systems may have been the responsibility of specialist teachers, was the responsibility of each general classroom teacher. The co-operative evaluation process had revealed a lack of appropriate art facilities, a lack of display areas, a lack of suggestions for lessons, and a lack of awareness of appropriate levels of expectation for student art and how to provide sequential activities to develop skills. As part of the suggestions it was proposed to have seminars at each year level to discuss appropriate levels of art and sequential development.

Students in Years 1 to 4 each received half an hour specialist teaching in music and students in Years 5-7 each received three quarters of an hour of teaching in music. It was expected that class teachers, who would be present at these specialist lessons, would conduct follow-up lessons. Because the specialist teacher was not qualified as a music teacher, it had not been possible to develop a complete music program and students were not receiving completely sequential music studies. The teacher also noted that at such a large school with so many different classes taking music lessons it was difficult to keep abreast of individual student's progress.

The physical education specialist conducted 36 half-hour classes each week (six each in Years 1, 2, 3 and 4, five in Year 5, four in Year 6 and three in Year 7), as well as three block lessons involving Years 1 and 2. He noted that his responsibility to four

different people (the principal and three departmental heads) and the organization of the work in a school so large were the most difficult aspects of his role. This teacher, like the music specialist, noted that seeing so many different students each day made it difficult to see the fruits of his labour.

The teacher librarian would teach every class once a fortnight with the class teacher present. The size of the school precluded more intensive teaching. The class teacher would conduct a follow-up lesson the week after the library lesson. In addition to formal teaching, the teacher librarian helped teachers with resources and was involved in general library administrative duties.

The other area of specialist teaching was that of remedial and special education. The teacher involved taught one day per week at a nearby school which did not have a remedial or special education teacher. The teacher noted that, at Clarke School, his role was both as a special education teacher, since the nearest special school was over 150 kilometres distant, and as a remedial teacher. However, he did not have available the manual arts or home economics facilities available at special schools. He considered his experience in special schools to be invaluable in treating those few children in need of special care. Where the role was different to his previous experience was in dealing with children of high general ability but with specific learning difficulties. The general strategy was to deal with students on a withdrawal basis as well as providing advice to teachers. In 1980, he had reduced the time given to withdrawal classes from one and a half hours length to three quarters or half an hour with smaller groups, and correspondingly increased the resource role which could involve visits to other classes for support or testing. This change had come about as other teachers had gradually made more use of the specialist teacher as they had become more aware of what could be offered.

Other Schools

At both Morant and Rudd, specialist provision was very limited. At Rudd, as noted in Chapter 6, a teacher was employed to provide non-contact time for other teachers. This teacher took responsibility for physical education, music, health, and folk dancing and became a specialist in these areas. The role, however, appeared to be a demanding one in that it was difficult to establish an identification with a group of students.

Morant School employed a teacher-librarian and a craft-teacher, each for one day per week. Both liaised as resource staff with the regular teachers but the extent of liaison was limited by the short time each was at the school. Integration of library work into the school program was restricted because the library was located so far away from other teaching areas of the school. For 1981, it was planned to locate the library in an empty classroom to facilitate better use of the library facilities. Craft as a

skill-developing subject was considered less readily integrated with normal class work, but some liaison had been possible in projects related to topics in social science.

Summary

There are several issues that arise from the preceding discussion of specialist teaching in primary schools:

- methods of providing specialist instruction where no specialist staff are allocated;
- methods of allocating specialist staff to schools;
- methods of integrating specialist teaching into the school program.

With respect to the first of these, some schools and quite a number of more traditional teachers argued that it is the role of the class teacher to provide all teaching to their students. Notwithstanding this view however, one or two schools had developed interesting approaches, for example the concept of a resource role for different teachers. Although this did not often involve direct teaching of different groups, it did provide an information and guidance service. Other schools had more informally used the specialist attributes of different teachers to provide this cross-class assistance, or had engaged in some paired teaching to provide specialist help.

Quite a number of schools favoured the integration of specialist teaching into the general program. At Pritchard, this was made very difficult as regulations precluded the use of specialist staff in duties outside their speciality. In other schools, the use of specialist teaching to provide non-contact time for other staff in some ways lessened the opportunity for such integration, and in those schools where specialist staff visited the school only occasionally, such as Morant, the timetabling problems often made such integration difficult. Nevertheless, at other schools there was an active policy to encourage this. At Clarke, teachers were required to engage in a follow-up lesson after the specialist class and therefore teachers were obliged to attend specialist classes with their students. At Franklin, the direct involvement of the art teacher in general classes had enabled this integration.

Perhaps the key issue in the use of specialist staff in school relates to the way they are provided. Different schools had expressed differing needs for specialist staff yet with the exception of Franklin School they had no say over their appointment. The flexibility at Franklin enabled them to provide an educational program that better met the school's philosophy. It is worth considering whether such flexibility could not be introduced into other system's staffing formulae, such as occurs in Victorian primary schools (see McKenzie and Keeves, 1982).

CHAPTER 10

SCHOOL POLICY DETERMINATION PROCESSES

Any discussion of school effectiveness requires an examination of not only resource allocation practices, but also of the manner in which schools make such decisions, that is the policy determination processes.

In considering school policy determination it is possible to distinguish several processes:

- the development of school aims and goals;
- the development of structures and practices to implement aims;
- the evaluation of structures and practices.

Similarly, it is also possible to distinguish the extent of input into the process of school policy determination through the involvement or participation of parents and the community, the involvement or participation of non-executive staff, and the involvement or participation of students. These would not be the only inputs into decisions. Some decisions would be constrained by the requirements of education departments and, as has already been noted, teachers unions can affect decisions about issues such as class sizes and teacher non-contact time. Some of these external constraints have been discussed more fully by McKenzie and Keeves (1982). It is the purpose of this chapter to consider the school level processes that occurred in the primary and secondary schools visited, and as such this chapter is concerned with one of the six sets of issues guiding the research methodology, that is, processes of decision making.

Some Theoretical Issues

The School as a Bureaucracy

The view adopted above, that in studying policy determination it is possible to distinguish several processes in the determination, would just as easily fit the study of all organizations or bureaucracies. However Abramowitz and Tenenbaum (1978) argued that American schools did not possess the type of structure and co-ordination expected in a bureaucracy:

> School structure is not as extensive as in a bureaucracy. The level of differentiation among staff numbers is modest, the principal's role is many faceted rather than primarily managerial, decision making is participatory and decentralized.
>
> As far as co-ordination is concerned, the results are less clear cut. A bureaucracy relies heavily on consistently enforced rules to govern participant behaviour. In today's high schools rules do govern student and teacher non-instructional activities. However, fewer rules touch the professional aspects of instruction.

> Among the other co-ordination mechanisms, personal and informal practices (such as meetings and classroom visits by the principal) are used more often than formal evaluation. (Abramowitz and Tenenbaum, 1978:36)

In the same volume Stackhouse (1978) suggested (after Weick, 1976) that schooling would better fit a 'loose coupling theory' in which formal structure is present but in which the co-ordination mechanisms provide the necessary cohesion. Stackhouse notes several characteristics of such systems:

- the principal's role is broad;
- there is broad participation in decision making;
- there are broad general rules governing student and teacher behaviour;
- there is a broad variety of meetings to enable participation of a number of people in the school; and
- there are infrequent performance evaluations.

The Involvement of Personnel in Policy Determination

Parent or community involvement. In recent years there has been increasing attention given to the issue of involvement in school decision making, in particular to community involvement. Beare (1979) argued that accountability patterns could be established by strong governing boards responsible for more than periphery issues, having involvement in curriculum, rules, and staffing.

This issue of accountability was one of six key problems which the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) highlighted in a report on compulsory schooling:

> Implementing goals raises questions as to where should lie the locus of decision making in education. Contemporary wisdom has it that at all administrative levels the various interest groups should be engaged in the decision making and control process. Yet the central authorities in many countries are under increasing public pressure to be answerable for the performance of the education system. How are the authorities to ensure tighter accountability without, simultaneously, tightening central controls and thereby frustrating the movement to decentralise decision making? These questions are becoming crucial because of growing concern about educational standards - who decides whether standards are falling and what are the yardsticks by which they are measured. (OECD, 1981:2)

Pettit (1978) listed a number of constraints that affected the capacity of systems to create structures for community involvement and participation. At a very general level he notes:

> Not all systems, or schools, accept the concepts of shared decision making and local accountability and many do not have the policy development capacity to investigate the desirability, structural implications, funds and resources necessary for implementing changes. Inflexibility or lack of responsiveness in schools reflects a history of central initiatives, standardised appointments and provision of resources with little local control over such things as salaries, loans and facilities which might be used to attract the appropriate staff and by which responsiveness might be developed in the local community. Most bureaucracies are unsympathetic

to diverse demands for which no precedent exists and which are time-consuming to deal with. (Pettit, 1978:32)

More specifically Pettit refers to the inertia that many organizations have which is a resistance to the potential conflicts inherent in change. Much of this conflict lies with the teachers' fear of relinquishing their professional knowledge to amateurs. Beck and Goodridge (1978) have noted, for example, among the problems of community involvement:

> When confronted with the proposal that the community (especially parents) should have more influence upon decision making in schools, some teachers respond with the observation that they themselves must first become more involved in running the schools. Apparently some schools are still perceived as being autocratic institutions and lacking a sufficiently strong sense of community within them to accommodate an extension of their boundaries to the community outside. (Beck and Goodridge, 1978:23)

Involvement in schools has tended to be concentrated with certain parents, usually the more educated and there is a danger that the interests of the whole student body may not necessarily be met by such participation. Beck and Goodridge (1978) have warned, by reference to American research, that it is reasonable to question exactly what educational benefits are expected to accrue from the direct participation of lay persons in the management or direction of schools:

> Completely overlooked in such rhetoric is the matter of socio-economic class and whether a community controlled by lower-class, anti-intellectual elements can promote better education. New York's District 1 illustrates the fact that community control over education in the inner cities can easily deteriorate into control by the most strident and demagogic elements. (Schiff, 1976:378)

Another issue of equity that arises from such discussions on community participation involves the extent of community control over resources. Does community participation in school aims and staffing issues move us away from the principle of equitable staffing across different schools, with a small needs and discretionary component built into this principle, towards a more disparate provision of resources in line with perceived local needs? On the other hand is it being argued that the staffing formulae remain the same but that school communities have more say over what allocation they are allowed? Australian and New Zealand education systems have developed along the lines of equity in provision for schools of similar type and size, and it would seem unlikely that the principle would be challenged. As a result, community participation and school-based control is only likely to operate within the systemic formulae. Nevertheless, within this constraint, much control could still be devolved if it was considered desirable. What many theorists on the issue of community involvement and participation seem to overlook however is the difficulty of moving from the theory to the practice. Whether the community or parents should be involved in decision making is a philosophical viewpoint about which people may differ. Where schools favour

participation the mechanisms for achieving it may still be problematic (Fitzgerald, Musgrave and Pettit, 1976).

Staff participation. To some, the issue of staff involvement or participation in key decisions is not problematic: the principal and to some extent the senior executive staff are appointed to make decisions about school policy and other staff are there to implement the policies. Although this may still be the pattern of authority in a number of schools, there has been a shift in attitudes towards greater participation with many educators arguing that effective school management can only follow when all staff are fully involved and committed to educational theory and practice as advocated in the school.

Ogilvie (1980) defines this shift in opinion as a movement away from bureaucratic decision making towards participative decision making. Advocates of participation see several benefits:

- commitment is more likely to follow from participation;
- decision making is more efficient as those in promotion positions do not hold a monopoly of expertise;
- participation leads to personal fulfilment.

In essence, then, this raises the issue of the role of the principal in schools. The extent to which principals are prepared to devolve decision making reflects their perception of the role of the principal. It is probably also necessary to distinguish the role of the principal in a primary and in a secondary school. In the former, he or she may be the only non-teaching personnel; other staff may have very limited free time and may, because of their background and training, be more concerned with issues peculiar to their own classroom than to educational policy generally. To the extent that this stereotyping is true, the role of the principal in primary schools in providing the necessary educational leadership may be more important than in secondary schools where other non-teaching personnel are available, where all teachers have more free time, and where background and training characteristics are more likely to generate the desire for involvement in general educational issues. This is not to deny the importance of the role of the principal in secondary schools, but merely to place it in its organizational setting. It is possibly this setting that has enabled secondary schools to move more easily to a participatory model than has been possible in primary schools.

Student participation. Although the concept of increased student participation in decision making has only more recently been expounded, there has been little research conducted into this issue. Quirk (1978) following a study of 135 schools comments:

> Student representation at staff meetings or policy-making meetings is already being tried in some high schools in the region. If there is to be a course of action taken as a result of the influence and ideas of various groups within the school community, students should be represented not only at school council meetings but

> in those meetings attended by members of faculty groups, unit groups, year level groups and ancillary staff groups which decide the policy of the school. (Quirk 1978:108)

This view by Quirk is very much a value stance and as such it can be challenged. Dunlop (1979) has stated for example:

> But I would not merely argue that democratic participation in school may be distracting and encourage the development of undesirable traits which probably outweigh any more positive outcomes. I wish now to argue that the genuinely democratic school is actually anti-educational, because only in a community where the teachers stand 'over' the pupils (in a hierarchical sense) rather than 'on a level with' them (as is necessarily the case in a democratically run organisation) can the most fundamentally educational ends of the school, especially as regards moral and other value education, be achieved. (Dunlop, 1979:46)

Research evidence on these issues is not extensive, and as a result the debate tends to centre around ideological considerations. However, if in the future increasing numbers of students challenge the traditional student-teacher relationships, the issue of student participation is likely to be a pertinent one.

The following sections of this chapter relate the issues described above to the situations in the 16 schools visited.

Primary Schools

Community Participation in Decision Making

Of the nine primary schools visited, six had included a specific comment in their policy or philosophical statement about the importance of community involvement in school affairs. However, only two of these schools had involved the community in the process of deciding these philosophical statements.

Participation in developing aims. At Boldrewood, the school policy statement developed four main themes, the first being:

- the school must attempt some form of education of parents concerning their role in assisting the school in promoting the child's personal and intellectual capacities.

The school possessed a school council and a parents and friends committee, each of which within its charter attempted to increase parental and community involvement with the school as well as provide funds for the purchase of material resources and improvement of the school grounds. Both bodies also served as a means for the principal and teaching staff to canvass the opinion of the wider school community upon the desirability of school policy changes. In general, however, neither body was actively involved in initiating discussion on educational matters or providing policy guidelines, preferring to leave such matters to the expertise of the school staff. The principal

indicated that he favoured a considerable parental input to school decision making, and was attempting to develop structures to facilitate this.

Of particular interest was the operation of the Parent School Development Committee which had as its overall charter the raising of parents' educational awareness. This committee, which comprised 12 members including the principal, an elected teacher, the chairman of the school council and interested parents, saw itself as being concerned with helping to formulate the broad educational objectives of the school, and assisting with promotion of the multicultural program of the school, particularly amongst ethnic groups. The committee also arranged information and discussion evenings for parents and its whole range of operations reflected closely the importance accorded in the school's statement of philosophy to the role of parents in the education of the child.

One of the important features of Rudd Primary School was the involvement of the school council in the development of policy. The school council was the major policy determining body in the school. On it were represented the views of both parents and staff. The most recent school policy was developed in 1978 through a series of council meetings which reviewed the then existing school policies. The school policy document which had been developed encompassed not only general aims, but specific objectives and even some specific policies.

Participation in internal decision making. With respect to the participation of the community in the internal running of schools (for example curriculum issues, resource allocation), none of the schools reported any substantial participation. Where school councils, committees or parents associations existed, the members had tended not to get involved in the more professional issues concerned with the management of the school. This reticence was largely a reflection of the attitudes of the community members who did not feel qualified to make this input rather than a reluctance on the part of the school to receive such involvement. One possible exception to this was Boldrewood which had on its school council several well-educated persons, one or two who had been teachers. As evidenced from one visit to this council the educational debate was fairly intense. Nevertheless, there still existed a sort of boundary between what the council members believed they should contribute and what the principal would have accepted. At this school the principal was committed to community participation, but he accepted the difficulties in achieving it: the evidence at Boldrewood was that in time this co-operative input would be very well established. Although the presence on the Boldrewood School Council of some ex-teachers and professional people provided that body with some incisive potential the council as a whole was mixed. It was noticeable that all members of the council were encouraged to participate in the debates. Not only is it important that a council should represent the whole student body but that all council members should assist in the process of generating input from this mixed membership.

Although there was limited community participation in the process of internal school management, the links between the schools and their communities, beyond that of fund-raising, were still very important. In some systems (Victoria. South Australia, New Zealand and the Australian Capital Territory) statutory school councils or school committees were provided with a considerable influence over finance which inevitably involved them more closely in school programs, and many of these bodies had developed a committee structure to increase input in different areas. Ainley (1982) describes in more detail the relative influence of policy determination structures in the different systems. The involvement of Rudd school council in policy determination was, in fact, a requirement of that system. Beyond the statutory requirements, there was evidence at most of the schools visited that the school welcomed the possibility of close integration and the representative bodies that existed did contribute to a number of educational issues. At Morant, the parents association discussed the new physical education program; at Paterson, the parents discussed the issue of the school uniform; at Rudd, the school council was involved in discussions over a religious education program.

One of the more interesting developments occurred at Mansfield School, a small full primary New Zealand school (enrolments numbered 225). Brown and Maisey (1980) have stresssed the inevitable links that schools located in very small townships have with their communities. In the New Zealand educational system the governing bodies of primary schools are school committees. These are statutory bodies elected biennally by parents and householders in the area served by the school. Subject to the general supervision and control of the District Education Board, the school committees were responsible for the day-to-day management and care of the school buildings, grounds and equipment. In most areas school committees would be complemented by voluntary parent and teachers associations and both organizations would provide focusing points for local opinion.

At Mansfield an interesting innovation had occurred with the establishment of a school council comprising equally elected representatives of both the original school committee and the parents and teachers association, as well as representatives of the school (the four senior staff). All members of the council had voting rights. The organization replaced the two former associations, but in dealings with the Education Board the new organization had to be referred to as 'School Committee and Council' since the committee was the statutory body. The main reason for the development of the council was an attempt to integrate the community in school affairs. There had been some conflict about the previous dual roles of the association and committee in that the parent and teachers association had raised money that the school committee was empowered to spend. The new organization gave both associations an equal voice. In part this was a response to the perceived role of the principal as supporting the community at every level. The point was made that the principal of a rural school, as

well as being involved in school affairs, was in the business of generating a community. The Mansfield School Council was one step in this direction. It was a new organization and not without problems that many new organizations would suffer. Whether it succeeds as an integrating factor within the school community remains to be seen.

Participation in school evaluation. At the beginning of the chapter the process of policy determination was viewed as three distinct phases: the formulation of aims, the formulation of structures to achieve aims and the evaluative process. The previous discussion has centred on these first two processes. With respect to the evaluation aspect only two schools had involved community representatives. At Rudd, a school-based evaluation of the mathematics program had involved one meeting attended by 50 or 60 parents. At the meeting opportunity was provided for parents to indicate their likes and dislikes concerning the program and to suggest priorities in the sorts of information which should be gathered to assess its effectiveness.

Similarly, at Boldrewood during late 1979, an extensive evaluation of the effectiveness of the sub-school (K-7) structure was conducted by a small team comprising teacher and parent representatives assisted by a staff member of a nearby tertiary institution. Through a combination of interview schedules and questionnaires the evaluation team sought the views of teachers, a 10 per cent sample of students, and 20 parents.

Another school, Clarke, had been involved in Co-operative School Evaluation in 1978. These evaluations had been designed by the education system and booklets suggesting practices were sent to schools. In the guidelines it is indicated that community members could become involved: at Clarke the evidence was that this process had been school-based however.

Staff Participation in Decision Making

As noted earlier, Coulson (1976) indicated the reasons why in primary schools decision making is more likely to be focused on the principal and why the teachers are more likely to be involved in issues concerning class teaching. The study of the nine schools, without completely denying this premise, revealed certain trends that went against this viewpoint. Although it was true that quite a large number of teachers interviewed were very classroom orientated in their approach there was discernible two trends operating against this:

- co-operative or paired teaching styles;
- greater involvement in management issues.

Co-operative Teaching The first of these, for example the New Zealand syndicate systems or the Australian co-operative teaching techniques, is concerned with classroom related issues (curriculum development or teaching styles, etc.) and consequently is not a

trend that would challenge the traditional role of a primary school principal. Nevertheless, the trend is interesting as a means of widening the experience base of teachers. In addition, two of the policy determination processes referred to earlier (evaluation and providing in-service education to teachers) very often occur through this co-operation. For example, the pairing of teachers in some schools was performed so as to match experienced with less experienced staff. At Mansfield, this arrangement was encouraged as the principal took the view that there might well be occasions when teachers would feel more willing to approach other teachers rather than the principal.

At Pritchard the grouping of staff into teams also had a staff training role. In each team there was a 'team leader' who was usually a senior teacher. It was a position which provided for administrative clarity as well as meeting education department regulations. However, it was a role which had not been tightly specified: rather it had evolved within a framework of participation in decision making and effective communication. A prime responsibility of the team leader was to generate leadership from other staff, to encourage people to exercise professional responsibility, and to involve others in making decisions. The taking of decisions was not to be retained as the prerogative of the team leader. It was indicated by staff at all levels that this intention was largely fulfilled in practice, that responsibilities were allocated on established consensus within each team and tasks were allocated on the basis of individual strengths rather than seniority. However, it should not be assumed that team leaders had abrogated their authority. On the contrary, their role remained extremely important and demanded great subtlety for they had to ensure that staff did participate, that important needs were noticed by a staff member, and that initiative was exercised in bringing forward important issues.

One of the features stressed at Pritchard School was the importance of building opportunities for staff development into the organizational structure. A simple way in which this occurred was through the audio-tutorial program on reading which had been established in the staffroom. Even though everyone except the executive staff had a full teaching commitment the flexible structure did enable occasional use by staff of this facility during the school day. More commonly it was used after school. Direct staff development of the sort involving formal programs was seen as less significant than the staff development which occurred through the general structure of the school. Team leaders and the deans (the deputy principals) were expected to use planning meetings and consultations as part of a systematic program of staff development through which all staff were given responsibility and the opportunity to learn with the support of other staff. The comments provided by junior staff seemed to support the view that this process was effective. The support and advice given through the team structure was found to be helpful, as was the opportunity to have responsibility for planning, evaluating and leading discussion on several units. It would seem that such provisions for developing techniques in an open plan school were important when teacher training institutions tend

to be more orientated to individual teaching skills rather than to the co-operative skills of an open plan school. It was the school's intention that the structure it had developed would provide for continuing staff development at all levels. Indeed it was seen as the responsibility of the executive staff to ensure that this active staff development occurred.

In smaller schools the team could be replaced by the whole staff in this staff development process. At Morant, for example, with a staff of only six, the staff meeting provided a forum for occasional in-service education activities such as that intended to familiarize staff with a new natural science curriculum. Another example of this function of staff meetings was the series held concerning what was expected of a language curriculum implemented some years previously and in which interest had been renewed.

With respect to evaluation of programs, very often the teams performed a role in a very unstructured way but occasionally a more structured process occurred. At Rudd, for example, there existed at the school an extensive school-based curriculum development activity following from formalized curriculum committees. There were six such committees covering the areas of language arts and reading, mathematics, social science and science, physical education and health, art and craft, and music. These committees were intended to develop, support and review school curricula in those areas. Every staff member was involved in at least one subject committee. Each committee had defined objectives, selected and adapted material suited to the students aptitudes, and devised evaluation procedures for use in the school.

When the mathematics program was introduced at Rudd, there had been a pupil free day during which the mathematics curriculum committee had introduced the scheme and explained to staff the pupils and teachers handbooks and other material. A second pupil free day was held to explain in detail the way the system operated, the tests, the checklists and the material which had been purchased to supplement the program. A recent evaluation of the program had suggested that generally it was effective but that new teachers needed a clearer introduction to the program, that parents needed some information about terms which were used, and that better liaison with the neighbouring secondary school needed to be developed. The evaluation itself involved the allocation of resources in terms of time release for the mathematics committee to enable consultations with parents and teachers to establish the evidence to be collected; to enable interviews with students in Years 5 and 6, and with teachers; to enable the selection of appropriate tests, the administration of tests and questionnaires, and the collating and interpreting of results. It was generally considered a valuable exercise in developing further an effective mathematics curriculum. The school-based development of a curriculum in this area appeared to have secured a strong commitment to the teaching of mathematics.

At Clarke, also, curriculum committees had been formed during the course of the Co-operative Evaluation that existed in 1978. These committees had been important in generating guidelines for the teaching of different subject areas. These guidelines had been documented in the form of different programs and had become a part of school policy with respect to the teaching program. The committees were available to continue investigation into these areas, and at the beginning of each year priority areas were usually set aside for investigation. At the time of the school visit, consideration was being given to reconvening the committees to review curriculum area guidelines.

In summary, it can be seen that the grouping together of staff at primary schools had served both an evaluative and staff development purpose, two ingredients for successful policy determination and implementation processes. This had widened the traditional view of a primary teacher as being confined to a classroom, to one embracing an extended concept of professionalism.

Involvement in School Management There was also a tendency in many of the schools visited to move more towards a participatory system of policy decision making. Not surprisingly, where schools had teachers other than the principal free from class teaching, such staff were important contributors to policy making and administration, but beyond that other participatory mechanisms were discernible.

Pritchard. Pritchard School had attempted to devolve as much decision making as possible but in a relatively unstructured way. Where corporate decisions were required a collegiate form was adopted. The formal structures provided a mechanism for the procedures by which decisions were made but there were many informal procedures operating in conjunction with these. Most decisions which affected actual teaching practices were taken in the planning meetings of the teams of teachers. These teams of teachers consisted of two to four teachers who worked together in each of the four areas or 'blocks' in the school. The teams held planning meetings after school four times per week. At the level of general policy, a staff meeting was held once each week (the principal did not attend as a matter of deliberate policy). Through meetings such as these and through less formal channels, the school scheme had been developed and was being further developed. The formal staff meeting would often be concerned with administration matters affecting the whole school but also would be concerned with general curriculum matters. Most issues raised at staff meetings appeared to be resolved by consensus. The proposed allocation of staff for each year would be discussed at a special meeting of staff. A meeting of the executive staff (principal, associate and deputy principals) together with senior teachers was also held on a fortnightly basis. This meeting was not policy determining but had as its main function communication between the teams. The executive staff met for administration purposes each day.

The intention of the formal organizational structures was to augment and facilitate

the informal interchange of ideas. Throughout the structure it was intended that decisions would be taken in a collegiate manner at a level as close as possible to where the decision would be implemented. Hence, small teams worked co-operatively rather than through specified leaders exercising formally delegated authority.

Boldrewood. At Boldrewood, there also existed substantial participation by staff in decision making although the structures were more formalized. The decision-making process at this school was influenced by the operation of the K-7 sub-schools. To a large extent the three units were administratively independent. As described in Chapter 7, within each unit the teachers and support staff met each week to consider items of interest to the unit, discuss issues to be considered by the whole staff, and consider reports from the unit representative. Each week, representatives from the three units and a representative of the teacher aides met with the principal and deputy principal to discuss issues of school-wide interest. These executive meetings had two main functions. First they assisted the senior administrative staff to gather opinion on policy matters. Second, where appropriate, the executive meetings had the authority to reach a decision on these matters. It appeared, however, that most policy matters were referred to a full staff meeting for consideration. A full staff meeting was held each week and lasted one hour; students were dismissed 30 minutes early on that day to facilitate the meeting. Attendance at the meeting was not compulsory but in general was very high. The meeting was chaired by the principal and included reports from the principal, the deputy principal, and teacher representatives on other bodies such as the school council. School-wide policy matters were also discussed at these meetings. Provision existed for the calling of full staff meetings on an ad hoc basis if the need arose.

The formal decision-making structure at Boldrewood therefore appeared to be quite democratic in nature. Major issues were either referred to a whole staff meeting for resolution, or were resolved at the executive meeting at which staff members were represented by their unit representatives. However, a number of areas of difficulty with the formal decision-making process were identified in discussions with teachers and the principal. The first area of concern was in relation to the operation of the unit meetings. A number of teachers commented that a considerable amount of the time of the unit meetings was devoted to discussion of school-wide policy matters, either in the form of receiving reports from the unit representative on the conduct of the previous executive meeting, or in considering matters which were due to go before a whole staff meeting. The complaint was that too little time was available at unit meetings for the discussion of intra-unit issues. This particular problem was related to a further contentious issue, namely the number of times which certain issues would be discussed before decisions were reached. It was not uncommon, for example, for an issue with school-wide implications to be raised at a unit meeting, discussed by that meeting and

the unit representative thereby informed of the unit policy on that issue; the next stage would be for the issue to be raised at an executive meeting, possibly referred back to the units for consideration, and then after a further meeting of the executive to consider the unit's views in some cases the issue would be referred to a full staff meeting for resolution. The procedure was not only time consuming, it also had the potential to increase disinterest in the decision-making process and lead to a decision-making vacuum. As identified by a number of the staff, a major cause of the dissatisfaction with the decision-making structure was the multitude of levels at which issues were considered and the need therefore to reconsider the appropriate level at which particular issues should be addressed. Such a review of decision-making structures was being considered at the time of the school visit.

A further problem identified by a number of staff concerned the lack of a formal time provision for meetings between teachers from different units in order to discuss areas of common interest, particularly in the field of the curriculum. In 1980, the allocation of classes between units was such that a wide range of year levels was contained within each unit, with the result that an individual teacher could not necessarily be guaranteed that another teacher in the same unit would be taking a class containing similar year levels. For example, the 47 Year 3 students were distributed as follows: 12 students were in a combined Year 3-4 class in Yellow unit, 10 were in a class spanning Years 2-4 in Green unit, and the remaining 25 Year 3 students comprised a single year class in Red unit. Such a distribution did not facilitate joint teacher discussions of curriculum matters relating to Year 3 students. In recognition of this problem, a number of informal meetings between teachers of similar year levels had been initiated.

Morant. The participatory nature of decision making was also noticeable, perhaps not surprisingly, in the very small schools visited. At Morant, which was a school with just six staff, the patterns of communication and decision making tended to be less formal than in larger schools. Through a series of staff meetings the decision was reached to introduce the reading scheme. The aim of this scheme was for a sequential program, which stressed the need for systematic reading instruction throughout the school rather than having a decline in emphasis after Year 3. After interest had been aroused, representatives of publishers (and others) were invited to staff meetings to elaborate features of the alternatives which were available. As a result of this process two schemes were selected as being the most suitable. Two staff members visited schools which were using each of the schemes and reported to the staff who then decided on the program which seemed best. The process ensured that careful scrutiny was given to the choice, provided for staff development as an incidental part of the exercise, and seemed to have secured strong commitment by staff to the scheme which was eventually chosen.

Paterson. Similarly at Paterson District High, the decision-making structures operated mainly on an informal basis. This did not mean that decisions were not taken by senior staff without consultation but that generally all staff would be involved in those decisions which affected them directly. In other issues the principal or deputy principal might act independently. It was the policy of the principal to ensure that decisions affecting the school and students were made at grass roots level because he felt that this led to more effective decision making. In the school policy statements it was recorded:

> All people involved in the implementation of policy should be involved in the formation of the policy. This was to create realism, relevance, commitment, continuity and co-ordination. Policy formation should arise from consensus of opinion.

The policy statements themselves were developed by adopting such a philosophy in staff meetings, committee formations, individual submissions, and so on. Despite this philosophy, however, the deputy principal responsible for the primary area of the school had considerable autonomy over the functioning of this part of the school.

Two other schools visited, Clarke and Mansfield, both had fairly inexperienced staff. At Clarke, the average teaching experience of staff was 2.9 years. The structures at these two schools were however very different. In part this was a response to the varying sizes of the schools (Clarke had over 1000 students and Mansfield just over 200) but also it reflected a differing philosophy with respect to the way to manage a school with very inexperienced teachers.

Mansfield. It was noted by staff that in a school as small as Mansfield much of the decision making occurred at an informal level with direct consultation. It was accepted that although the decision-making structures were consultative involving all concerned staff, nevertheless the final decision on certain issues such as student and staff allocation to classes was made by the principal. In a school with a high proportion of young teachers this was hardly surprising. The principal did, however, involve all staff in activities, each of them being given specific resource tasks and the staff acted as a team with much discussion and evaluation of school activities. In sum, the decision-making structures might be viewed as consultative guidance from the principal. She would not impose her views on an unwilling staff but would explain clearly the aims that the school was attempting to attain and leave it to the staff to generate ideas about how these might best be achieved.

Clarke. On the other hand, at Clarke, administration was far more centralized. All administration and policy formulation was the responsibility of the principal and deputy principal with some tasks delegated to the senior and infant mistresses. The implementation of policy was arranged through the establishment of three semi-autonomous departments operating within broad school guidelines. Years 6 and 7

were separated under the general guidance of the principal; Years 4 and 5 were under the guidance of the deputy principal; and Years 1, 2 and 3 were under the guidance of both the senior mistress and infant mistress, the latter having responsibility for Year 1 and shared responsibility for Year 2.

The administration meetings, where the major decisions on the school policy and administration were taken, usually took place shortly before the meetings of the three year level groupings so as to facilitate the communication of decisions. This structure was considered more efficient than whole staff meetings involving 44 teachers. These latter meetings were rare and were held only when absolutely necessary. The principal considered the decision-making system efficient as much work could be performed at the departmental level where it was more appropriate.

In sum, the decision-making structure at Clarke School was centralized whereas policy implementation had been decentralized through the formation of three departments. Individual teacher inputs into policy-making were possible but only at the departmental meetings through raising matters with the head of department.

The different philosophies of Mansfield and Clarke with respect to decision making were also noticeable in their attitudes towards staff development. At Mansfield, the principal sought to develop the strengths of teachers through giving them responsibilities. At Clarke, the attitude was substantially different. The informal system of teacher assessment was fairly strictly controlled at Clarke School. In fact, some of the more experienced staff considered that teachers were not given enough freedom. The assessment policy had been developed to assist the inexperienced teachers and this was generally accepted as necessary. There was a little concern by some that such a strict central system might be detrimental to a teacher's professional development by not providing the opportunity to learn from mistakes. However, it was the view of the administrative staff that young teachers received excellent training at Clarke.

The assessment system operated on two levels: one involved the outside inspectorate and the other the internal system. Many staff at Clarke were in their probationary (first) and inspection (second) years of teaching. At these times the administrative staff would be required to discuss matters in a probationary report with the teacher and to assist them as much as possible during these years. The internal system operated through the teachers' Current Curriculum Programs (CCP). The functions of the CCP were defined as:

- to assist the teacher in achieving orderly development of the syllabus;
- to ensure reasonable consistency throughout the school;
- to set attainable goals for children of different abilities and at the same time to keep standards of attainment as high as possible;

- to plan for flexibility in using school time for integration of subject areas where desirable, and the effective use of education media;
- to provide continual diagnosis of the effectiveness of the overall planning;
- to enable an incoming teacher to take over a class and continue its work without undue dislocation.

Each teacher had a CCP for each subject or unit being taught and these had to be completed on a two, four or six week basis depending on the area being studied. The CCPs stated objectives, teaching strategies used, resources used, gave comments and provided an evaluation. The format had been developed by the school itself and enabled the administrative staff to monitor the progress of teachers. There was evidence from the teacher satisfaction questionnaires administered at these schools that more staff were concerned about their autonomy at Clarke than at Mansfield and overall teacher satisfaction was higher at Mansfield.

Summary. Although a great deal of decision-making authority rested with the principal in the schools visited, there was considerable evidence of a move towards a more participatory form of involvement. Only at Boldrewood had this met with some problems and this appeared more to do with the mechanisms than with the philosophy of involvement. Also noticeable at the schools visited was a move away from one-teacher-one-class philosophy to a co-operative style of involvement in decisions about teaching. Although a few members of staff still preferred to be left alone, the co-operative approach had much to recommend it and in those schools operating such a scheme overall teacher satisfaction was higher.

Student Participation in Decision Making

Of the primary schools visited, only two had initiated any system of involving students in decisions. One, Paterson District High School, enrolled both primary and secondary students and the initiation of a scheme of involvement for primary students may in part have followed from the desire to have such a scheme for secondary students. At the primary level there were four councillors taken from Year 7 who were allocated specific roles (for example health, recreation, sport). These officers were elected by majority vote of Year 7 students once a year. The role of the councillors was primarily one of liaison through bringing forward problems to the principal.

At Mansfield, although a student council did not exist as such, the principal commented that the senior students of the school by their seniority, involvement and attitude might be termed a council. From Standard 4 through to Form 2 all organizational aspects of school life were discussed and planned with senior pupils either in classrooms or at the end of assembly. Their expectations of one another, and of their class and teachers, were discussed and recorded.

Structures for Policy Determination and Implementation

The preceding sections have examined the participation of community, staff and students in decision-making processes. Only in passing, however, have these sections discussed the actual structures that operated. As already noted it is possible to distinguish several elements in the process of decision making; namely: (1) development of aims; (2) development of structures to implement aims; and (3) development of structures to evaluate school programs.

The Development of Aims In connection with the particular philosophies of the schools, all but one school had a written statement of aims at the time of the school visit. Four schools reviewed this statement each year, while in two other schools it was reviewed less frequently than every three years. Three other schools did not comment on this. No matter how frequently the statement was reviewed the quality of the philosophical statements at different schools varied greatly.

In a number of schools, such statements were only very broadly based. For example at one school, the stated aims were:

1 to develop an atmosphere in which children will be able, happily, to develop as individuals to the limit of their inherent potentialities;

2 to fully develop the children's potential in formal subjects;

3 to develop individuals to contribute to the society in which they live;

4 to plan the educational program so that the development of attitudes is a steady and constant challenge.

Although such broadly based statements were often supplemented with school policy booklets which stated more closely the specific objectives of individual subjects, it was noticeable that few of the statements clearly specified the sort of structures that needed to be developed to achieve the aims outlined. To some extent this appeared less problematic in the small schools, where commitment to educational objectives seemed easier to achieve through the daily contact of all staff, but in the larger schools it appeared that a vacuum existed between teaching practices and school policy: the executive staff in a few schools were seen as administrators rather than educational leaders.

As an example of the situation in a small school, Mansfield at the time of the visit had no written statement of aims available. The district inspector visiting the school indicated in discussion that the philosophy was practice-based not theory-based. Although nothing was documented there existed at Mansfield a very noticeable philosophy about education, a philosophy that all teachers understood and that all aspects of the school program were intended to complement. During the course of writing the report, Mansfield staff made an attempt to document their aims. The principal commented on this process as follows:

I believe that philosophy lives within people and such discussion times change, reinforce, highlight and develop ideas. I'm not certain it will ever again be written down.

At Pritchard, the New Zealand intermediate school, there also existed a philosophy that pervaded the behaviours and structures of the school. Although not so informal as at Mansfield, this also was developed to a large extent through the personal development of all members of staff at the school. In its curriculum outline Pritchard School articulated some of the implications of features of its environment for the program to be offered. It recognized that its rural environs (and in particular the high percentage of students who came by bus) limited the scope of after-school enrichment activities. Consequently, the school argued for providing a wide range of optional activities associated with the normal program and for making full use of lunch intervals for the planned development of sporting and cultural interests. The school also argued that teachers should be sensitized to the needs of its Maori students through continuing staff training, and that the curriculum should be so designed as to both support the development of a positive self-concept among Maori students as well as making other students aware of significant aspects of Maori life. It was argued that the design of the school was such that it should lead to the development of co-operative teaching. Co-operative teaching was elaborated as involving a continuing emphasis on staff training, the development of a flexible organization in which routines gave students security, and the establishment of effective communication between all members of the school community. Above all, the school considered as the basis for the development of its program some assumptions regarding the nature of students in the fairly narrow age range for which it catered.

With respect to students the school had carefully considered the nature of its student body and developed a suitable philosophy. In more general terms the philosophy and program of the school as it affected both students and teachers could be, perhaps oversimply, characterized as open education. It incorporated co-operative teaching, considerable individualization in planning student programs, and executive staff members and team leaders were all encouraged to develop in their colleagues independence and leadership qualities.

The visit to the primary schools was unable to suggest guidelines to schools concerning the development of statements of aims and goals. The situation at Mansfield revealed how, in a small school at least, a well thought out educational philosophy can be incorporated into a school without a written charter to commit its staff. Even at Pritchard, much of the philosophy of the school was developed informally through the group structures. Both of these schools had managed to provide a leadership that committed the staff in a collegiate manner to school aims. The evidence from some other schools suggested that the school's educational philosophy was a rather hazy

statement irrelevant to classroom practices. In these instances the philosophy had not incorporated the ways in which teaching structures or administrative structures would be developed. In fact, the philosophy was often too broadly based to enable this. As a result, staff were a little unsure of the relationship between their input to school life and the educational philosophy being expounded.

The Development of Structures to Achieve Aims Two aspects of this issue appear important. Firstly, what structures exist to provide the in-service development for a staff to adapt to the educational philosophies or teaching practices operating, and secondly, what structures exist to provide for input to decision making and at what level should these structures operate?

Staff development. In earlier sections of this report mention was made of the important role that teams or pairing of teachers could have with respect to staff development. This was however only one aspect of the process: in a general sense staff development was a role of the principal and senior staff members, and in all schools visited these members of staff played key roles in this process by various means.

Various methods of staff development had been used in different schools. At Franklin Primary School, staff development was provided for in three ways. The first was a series of short activities held in conjunction with after school staff meetings during term time. Such activities were limited and did not involve any additional use of resources. The second was by enabling teachers to attend out of school conferences and courses of various types. Some of these would involve the allocation of funds to employ relieving staff, but others might not necessarily involve the deployment of additional resources. The third was the school-based seminars for which the school would set aside funds for relieving teachers to be employed while the staff conferred. In recent years there had been useful seminars which examined such issues as the role of specialist staff and the school's language program. Such a seminar was planned for the introduction of the multicultural studies program.

In a school with many inexperienced staff, such as Clarke, the structures developed to provide support for teachers were of considerable importance. Advice was available to teachers both from the school's administrative staff and from outside advisory personnel. The principal felt that isolated schools were fairly well provided for in terms of teacher support services. The teacher librarian and the administrative staff assisted in the development of new resource materials, and the administrative staff were on hand, through their departmental meetings and through occasional demonstration teaching, to assist the inexperienced members of staff. The administrative staff met each week to formulate reading lists for professional and curriculum development.

Similarly, at Paterson, a small district high school, considerable use was made of visiting advisers. In addition, in 1980, the school was granted a special position known as a 'regulation teacher' from within its staff. Regulation teachers were appointed to give schools more opportunity to use the expertise of one or more teachers to improve the learning program available to children. The principal duty of a regulation teacher was to assist other teachers with their classwork. At Paterson the following responsibilities were delegated to that person:

- take a leadership role in implementing the K-10 social studies syllabus;
- specifically develop spatial cognition skills throughout the school by designing a progressive set of lesson plans from K-10;
- induce the new staff to try the language and learning technique; and
- act as a liaison between advisory teachers and staff.

As well as the practices noted above, it was also seen that at Mansfield the visiting psychologist had provided valuable experience for one teacher who took over a fairly difficult class. In addition, a number of teachers attended classes for teachers outside of school hours. In sum, methods of providing staff development varied across schools and reasons for such provision also varied. Among the stated reasons were:

- training of inexperienced staff;
- special training of teachers for difficult classes; and
- training of teachers for special student characteristics.

Without detracting from the value of outside assistance, the evidence from the visits indicated that the most satisfactory staff development in the view of teachers was that developed through the internal structuring of the school. In small schools this often involved the staff meetings as a whole, and in other schools it involved the syndicates or teams. The situation at Pritchard where team leaders and assistant principals had a key defined role in staff development best epitomized this approach.

Decision-making structures. In earlier sections decision-making structures operating at schools were described. These varied from informal staff meetings through to formalized administrative and curriculum committees. Beyond the general belief that where greater participation of members of staff occurred, greater satisfaction of teachers also seemed to occur, it would be impossible to advocate specific structures: circumstances in different schools varied so greatly. However, one or two issues did stand out.

It was possible to discern two major areas of decision making in schools, one concerning school management, and the other concerning subject-related management or year-level related management. Structures to enhance decisions in the latter included syndicate or team meetings and curriculum committees. Both practices seemed to be well viewed in the schools in which they operated. The danger that was outlined at

Boldrewood, and one heightened by the sub-school divisions at that school, was that a system of school-management decision making employing democratic procedures must not overshadow the mechanisms for unit, subject or year level decision making. All are important (and to many classroom teachers issues relating to class teaching are more important), and it is essential that systems in schools provide for adequate co-ordination of these various processes. At Boldrewood, there was some evidence that the sub-school structures had become isolated from each other and year level co-ordination was needed.

The Development of Structures for Evaluation In earlier sections some of the methods schools had used to evaluate programs were described. These included curriculum committees as well as specifically designed evaluation bodies and externally developed evaluation strategies. Evaluation of school structures for the better development of the school's program is a key issue and one that should be separated from the concept of departmental control and assessment. All schools should be thinking about methods of evaluating programs. In a very general sense, of course, the role of the principal and executive staff is an evaluative role and this should not be minimized. However, there is value in widening this process to include people from outside the school or the group whose program is being evaluated. Such people can help to ensure that the validity of the data gathered for the evaluation is acceptable by acting as an impartial observer and by offering data-gathering techniques and resources not available within the school. The education departments can perform an important function by facilitating the operation of outsiders in a school's evaluation program, although some still view such intrusions with suspicion.

The Co-operative School Evaluation booklets in Queensland, the School Review: Resource Book in Victoria, the publication of the booklet School-Based Evaluation in the ACT (Boud and Donovan, 1980), and the documentation on School Controlled Evaluation produced by the South Australian Education Department (South Australia. Education Department, 1980b) are all examples of the assistance that education departments can give to schools in a periodic overview of their school's functioning. This does not deny the added possibility of internal or external reviews of individual projects instigated by the schools. In the introduction to the Victorian School Review: Resource Book the rationale for this sort of evaluation is stipulated (Victoria. Education Department, 1979:3).

There is not one ideal method of evaluation: possibly a strategy where a thorough review of the whole school program (with assistance from outside personnel - either education department, university, parental or other - perhaps with the use of such booklets as described above) occurred every three, four, or five years and where individual innovative programs received a limited form of review (also calling on some outside personnel) would be a possible structure. The schools' executive personnel and teachers generally would then provide the day-to-day evaluation.

Secondary Schools

Community Participation in Decision Making

In theory, the community were able to participate in the decision-making processes of secondary schools through their representation on school councils or parents associations. Of the eight schools visited four had school councils, five had parents associations and one had neither such body. The potential for involvement through such bodies varied, however. It has already been noted that at Kendall College, Richardson, Palmer, Lawson and Dennis, the school council or parents committees had some say in the appointment of ancillary staff and at Dennis this spread even to the appointment of the principal and deputy principal. Despite this involvement in staff appointment, however, at most schools the school council or parents association had a fairly limited role in educational issues leaving such professional matters to school staff, in particular to the principal. Although councils were often empowered to control school finances this was generally also done on advice from the principal. Nevertheless, there were examples of greater participation.

Kendall. Among the expected benefits of the establishment of the college system was greater community participation in decision making both in developing aims and goals and also in developing structures to achieve those aims. At Kendall, a great deal of authority was vested in the governing council. The main task of this body was 'to determine the educational policies to be implemented at the school' but it also controlled the spending of some funds and the allocation of other resources within the school. Within the guidelines determined for the education system, the governing council was the policy determining body of the college. It is important to note that the phrase used in its charter was 'to determine the educational policies' not simply to advise on policies. The charter included the following:

(a) to determine the educational policies to be implemented at the school;

(b) to assess, from time to time, the needs of the school in relation to the provision of buildings and facilities, funds and teachers and other staff and make recommendations to the Authority with respect to the meeting of those needs;

(c) to determine the purposes for which funds made available for the school are to be expended;

(d) to make recommendations to the Authority in respect of the use of the buildings, facilities and equipment of the school for purposes other than school purposes;

(e) to develop relationships between the school and the community and between the school and community organisations;

(f) to make recommendations to the Authority on matters relating to the school; and

(g) such other functions as the Authority confers upon the board.

Despite these general powers, even at Kendall it was argued that the principal's advice was the most important aspect of the workings of the council. Nevertheless, as is detailed in the following sections the governing council was an important chain in the internal decision-making process and had been involved in discussions concerning school aims.

Palmer. At Palmer School, a considerable effort had been made to stimulate the involvement of parents and the community. The role of the parents association at Palmer was broader than that of a fund raising body. Its role was to foster communication between parents, school and community in order to stimulate parent interest and involvement in the school. The association had in the past sponsored educational evenings at which such matters as curriculum, course content, course aims and objectives, school philosophy, and policy were discussed. These occasions were seen as opportunities for parents to give input and to meet staff of the school on an informal basis. At the time the case study was being undertaken, the association had organized the production and distribution of a questionnaire to parents concerning the proposed cuts in government spending on education, and concerning parental involvement in schools. A newsletter providing feedback on the questionnaire had also been prepared.

The role of school councils in the State in which Palmer was located was to represent the whole school community and to provide an oversight or check over the well-being of the school. Councillors were to advise the principal where necessary on the educational needs of the district, and advise the director-general through the principal of any alterations, additions or replacements needed with respect to accommodation, grounds and equipment. Councils were to participate in decisions on the distribution of education department grants, consider general educational policy and keep proper accounts.

The extent to which different school councils have become involved in this range of activities obviously varied. At Palmer the council had actively assisted in the consultation necessary to employ a person to continue the Learning Assistance Programme, and also groups of parents had approached the council and principal regarding specific school activities which were causing them concern. Although the school council only made recommendations to the principal and held no executive power, it was considered to be an influential organization. Educational topics were discussed at each council meeting, the subject usually being selected by the council's education sub-committee. In this way it had become a well-informed body.

Lawson. At Lawson, the control that the council had over finance was exercised on the advice of the principal. The council had become indirectly involved in educational matters when the school was reorganized into a junior, middle and senior school with concomitant changes in curriculum. In these changes the council's role was supportive.

The initiative for the reorganization had come from school staff, and had been accepted by the principal. The concept was put to council, who played an important role in convening parents meetings and providing other opportunities where the idea was explained. Even though the change could have been implemented without the support of council, that backing was important to its acceptance in the community.

Two other roles fulfilled by the school council had resource implications. One was to negotiate ways of limiting the size of the intake of the school to about 120 students each year by appropriate choice of feeder primary schools. The other was to gauge community opinion regarding the establishment of another secondary school with a technical emphasis in the neighbourhood.

Dennis. At Dennis, the principal commented that the council's role was still developing, and although traditionally the devising of curricula had been left to the school, the council could play an active role in indicating the general areas that should be taught, and in justifying the consequent resource implications to the education department. In addition, the council did invite heads of department to discuss educational issues so they were aware of school practices even though they did not in general intervene with them. Also, as already noted, the council at Dennis was involved in the selection of senior teaching staff, the employment of ancillary staff, and in the control of the budget. Similarly, the parents association at Dennis provided a forum for explaining school policy and for staff to seek the views of parents on various matters.

Other schools. At the other schools visited, the role of the council or parents association appeared more as an avenue of communication. At Richardson, however, it was noted that one staff member regularly attended association meetings as he felt it enhanced his chances of obtaining a little extra funding for his department. Brennan did not have a statutory body nor did it have an active parents association. There was little direct opportunity for either parents or the local community to be actively involved as an influence upon internal school decision making. With such a high proportion of families having only recently arrived in Australia, progress in generating community involvement had been relatively slow and tentative. However, some significant successes had occurred.

At Brennan, as noted in Chapter 8, the approach to community involvement was indirect; namely to encourage parents to become aware of the school program and the role of the home in complementing that program. It was perhaps the case that this indirect approach was inevitable at a school like Brennan since its local community was poor in resources and had a high proportion of parents whose more direct involvement in the school would be hampered by either language difficulties, employment commitments or both.

Summary. In the schools visited, there was a limited amount of community participation in the educational issues of the school. Generally the community saw its role as supportive of the school not as a great contributor to educational philosophies or school structures. In one or two schools visited a greater effort had been made in involving the community with some limited success. Generally, the lack of involvement of the community personnel reflected their reticence rather than deliberate isolation by the school, which indicated the need for schools to become aware of ways to increase the participation of community personnel. Nevertheless, in one or two schools visited the prevailing attitude was that the community's involvement should stop short of the professional issues of school management.

Staff Participation in Decision Making

The general pattern in the majority of schools visited was to involve, in a democratic way, the staff of the school both in management and in subject or teaching related issues. Exceptions to this practice would be Richardson, Brennan and to an extent Paterson. At Richardson, staff had considerable autonomy over subject-related matters (and with the loss of subject masters at the school in 1980 this was performed in a very co-operative and collegiate manner), but on the whole the school-management issues were the prerogative of the principal. This is not to deny that staff had means to provide input to the system but that such structures were not formalized. At Paterson, also, the argument above would fit this school even though in such a small school a great deal of decision making would occur in an informal co-operative way.

Brennan. The major components of the decision-making structure at Brennan were the school executive, the subject co-ordinators, the year level co-ordinators and the staff committees. The school executive was a group of eight senior staff comprising the principal, the deputy principal and six subject co-ordinators each of whom was classified in a promotional position. The executive met weekly for 90 minutes and excluding the principal was the highest level of decision-making authority in the school. In conjunction with the principal the executive members decided the allocation of administrative responsibilities amongst the executive. The principal was responsible for overall policy direction and the interaction between the school, the local community and regional and central education department authorities.

The six subject co-ordinators were responsible for the general administration and oversight of a particular subject department or in the case of one co-ordinator, two small subject departments. In the main, the co-ordinators managed departments in their own area of subject expertise. On average each subject department met weekly to discuss subject-related matters.

As well as providing the main administrative input to the subject departments, executive members also played an important role in the administration of year levels.

Each of the six year levels was allocated an executive member who co-ordinated administrative issues across that year level, and a year level co-ordinator who was principally responsible for student welfare at that level. Each week the year level co-ordinator and executive member met with other teachers and students from the year level. These meetings were mainly concerned with administrative and student welfare issues as they related to each year level, and were not intended to have involvement in either curriculum development or wider school policy formation.

There were ten staff committees in operation and they had existed for two years. Membership of each committee was approximately ten teaching staff. Each committee had a co-ordinator or leader. Every staff member was a representative on at least one committee. Current committees were: Disadvantaged Schools, Work Experience, School Beautification, Austfest (extracurricular activities), House Efforts, and Year 10 Activities. Each committee met for one hour per month and reports were made at the staff meetings. The committees formulated policy relating to their area of responsibility. They set up the probable program for the year. These were presented to the whole staff for approval by vote. Each committee also evaluated its year's work. Evaluation was formative and summative. Parental membership and involvement was sought and encouraged.

Another avenue for the involvement of the majority of staff in policy formation was the weekly staff meeting. In practice, however, such meetings were generally concerned with administrative matters and the dissemination of information. This is not to say that the general staff had no input into policy formation. On the contrary, an important role was accorded to teachers in subject departments, and several school-based in-service initiatives were evidence of the awareness of the need to broaden staff involvement in policy determination. In addition, at each staff meeting one or more opportunities were created for discussion of selected areas of policy rather than broad areas.

Although the remaining schools all greatly involved staff in decision making some either left the final control with the principal or had established systems where policy formulation was still most likely to derive from senior staff.

Lawson. At Lawson there were two main decision-making bodies. One was the school policy committee which was composed of the principal, the deputy principal, the four senior teachers, and four elected staff members. It met once each week and advised the principal on matters of school policy on which a decision was required. The principal, being legally responsible for school policy, retained the right of veto but had not had cause to exercise that right. The school policy committee worked in conjunction with the staff meeting which was also held on a weekly basis, with an elected staff member as chairman. Agenda items lodged by staff were debated and could be decided there, referred to the school policy committee, or referred to a subcommittee of the

staff meeting. The principal had the rarely exercised right of veto over staff meeting recommendations. In a manner similar to the school council, the staff meeting had a series of subcommittees to consider and report upon matters which had been raised.

Lindsay. At Lindsay, the most important meetings of groups in the decision-making hierarchy that operated at the school were those of the staff association, the senior staff, the subject departments and the sub-schools. The staff association met once each month, a part of the time being in school hours. This was a policy-making body: attendance was usually high and votes taken at the meetings became policy. The staff association might set up committees to assist its work. The senior staff meeting involved the 12 senior teachers, the two deputy principals, the principal, the four sub-school co-ordinators, the guidance officer and the youth education officer. Meetings were held after school hours for one hour each week. This group had a number of functions: it could be policy making, it could be a means of communication, and it could be policy formation prior to presentation at a staff meeting. Only the most important issues would be forwarded to the staff meetings.

The subject department meetings took place once every two weeks. The purpose of such meetings was to discuss issues relating to the curriculum and teaching staff in that area. In the State in which Lindsay was located, the subject departments were very strong bodies, and at Lindsay some departments had forced a compromise to the overall school policy on sub-school structures.

The sub-school staff meetings alternated with the subject meetings and operated on a roster basis whereby the staff of one sub-school supervised the whole school while the others met. Activities discussed at such meetings would include administration matters, policy matters, and matters relating to the educational program (such as reading schemes and contact groups). Issues might be raised at sub-school meetings prior to presentation at full staff meetings.

The decision-making process at Lindsay could possibly be described as pragmatic democracy, that is, the devolution of decisions on the more important issues to the full staff, the devolution of decisions on subject specific and sub-school specific issues to those particular groups and the devolution of many other general day-to-day administrative decisions to the senior staff meeting. The processes enabled the staff in general to affect decisions, and even to alter policies from those initially developed or supported by senior staff.

Dennis. At Dennis Technical School, the structure of decision making was so designed that it enabled contributions from individual staff into all issues (through the ad hoc committee system) and at the same time it gave to all staff (as represented on the education committee) a voice on policy issues. Ad hoc committees, or working groups, could be formed on any issue provided at least three people attended meetings and

provided the proposed committee was announced at a full staff meeting giving the time and place of the meeting. Recommendations on an issue from an ad hoc committee formed to consider that issue were then submitted to the executive committee which consisted of the principal, five elected staff members and three nominees of the principal. The executive committee had the power to accept or reject a written submission but could not amend a proposal. The person who submitted a proposal attended the meeting and therefore was in a position to judge if his proposal was worth re-submitting after amendment. The principal did have a right of veto but it was rarely used. In addition, the education committee (all staff) had a final power of veto but again this was not often used and really was only intended as a final safeguard. The Executive Committee met when it needed to decide on submissions. The Education Committee met every fortnight.

Operating alongside the policy formulating structure (i.e. the education committee, the executive committee and the ad hoc committees) there existed an administrative structure (year-level co-ordinators, and an administrative committee). The administrative committee consisted of the heads of department, deputy principal, and year level co-ordinators and was intended to implement policies determined by the policy-making bodies. In the implementation of policies the co-ordinators also had an important role in the chain of decision making.

In summary, Dennis Technical School had developed an interesting system for initiating and implementing policy which provided opportunities for the full involvement of teaching staff. Through this structure important decisions about the school curriculum and resource allocation were made. Moreover, it was a structure which demanded a democratic style of leadership from the principal. At Dennis the principal recognized this and welcomed the opportunity it gave for new ideas to be developed. The structure still allowed him to ensure that his ideas were considered in the process of decision making, but required him to persuade others to recognize the value which they held rather than to implement the ideas directly.

While generally there was support in the school for the policy development structure two aspects of it were considered problematic. One was that the process was time consuming; lunch times and evenings were frequently used as all the committees met out of school hours. This reduced and limited participation by those with other demands on their time or with a less than full commitment to the system. The other was that the system necessitated skills in meeting procedures; a good idea might not be followed up for want of a skilled advocate. Despite these two problems, most staff at Dennis believed the structure was a very good one which enabled ideas from all staff to be brought forward for critical examination, and which provided for school policy to be developed so that staff were committed to it.

Kendall. Two types of decisions made within Kendall College could be distinguished. Some decisions related closely to the content and methods of teaching in particular subject areas and were largely taken within faculties. Other decisions concerned wider areas of the school program and operation and an extensive committee structure had been developed to consider these broader issues. The system of decision making which had been established attempted to involve the widest possible number of staff. In its response to a questionnaire for the schools survey in 1979 (see Ainley, 1982) it was indicated that:

> the school has attracted a considerable number of highly qualified and experienced teachers and attention has been paid to facilitating and encouraging their involvement in decision making and policy formulation.

One very important component of the decision-making structure was the administrative meeting. It met once each week at lunchtime and was chaired by the principal. All senior teachers and the assistant principal were required to attend and any other teacher who wished could also attend. Prior to each meeting every staff member would have access to a copy of an agenda so that they would be informed about issues to be raised. A typical meeting would include question time, in addition to business matters which arose either from the various specialist committees or from the governing council. Decisions of this meeting took the form of recommendations to the governing council or to the principal for implementation.

Parallel to the administrative meeting were the executive meeting and the staff meeting. The executive meeting consisted of a small group of the most senior staff and was mainly concerned with implementing the policies formulated by the administration committee or the governing council. The staff meeting provided a more broad-ranging forum for discussion of school issues. It was controlled by staff through an elected chairman (actually a panel which rostered the duties of chairmanship) and an elected agenda committee. It met twice per month and typically considered such items as policy regarding student withdrawal from courses; the form and extensiveness of references provided for students; and the desirability and format of a staff conference for the end of year. A common result of decisions of the staff meeting would be for the resolution to be passed to the administration committee or sometimes for the matter to be referred directly to the school's governing council.

The administrative meeting and the principal were advised by a number of special committees concerned with curriculum, finance, moderation, ancillary staff, and graduation. In addition to these on-going committees there were specific short-term committees established, such as those concerned with devising a system of reporting students' language skills, and investigating the decision-making structure of the college.

The curriculum committee met fortnightly with membership being open to any interested staff and students. Its meetings were chaired by the assistant principal whose

major responsibility was curriculum. Its main function was to approve or reject outlines of course proposals. In performing this role it would look closely at the requirements of both college policy and external accreditation. Such proposals would have originated with a teacher, and been discussed by the relevant faculty and the assistant principal prior to presentation. If approved by the curriculum committee, the outline would go before the administrative meeting and the school's governing council prior to its being further developed for accreditation. The curriculum committee was also involved in examining major revisions to curriculum, reaccreditation procedures by an external agency (every five years), and more general matters such as the statement of aims and objectives. Revisions would normally be initiated by the faculty head, but occasionally the assistant principal would take the initiative.

The finance committee was more formally structured. It comprised four senior teachers elected by the administrative meeting plus the registrar and principal. Meetings were mainly held in the last term of each year to plan for the next year. It estimated likely income and recommended on how that money should be allocated between large expenditure items, general use and each of the faculties (usually each faculty lodged a prior submission). The recommendations of this committee were passed to the administrative meeting through the governing council of the college.

The moderation committee was a selected committee. Any teacher could nominate, but the principal made the appointments on the basis of the expertise required. It was chaired by the assistant principal (curriculum) and in 1980 comprised two senior teachers and three other teachers. It met fortnightly or monthly as required, and made recommendations to the principal on technical matters relating to student assessment and reporting. Amongst its more important functions was the monitoring of the distribution of letter grades in different subjects and checking the way in which course scores were calculated from the assessments made in units. In performing each of these functions there would be considerable consultation with faculties.

The graduation committee was responsible for the collation of Year 12 records, deciding on levels of graduation for the college certificate, ensuring grades in courses were accurately recorded together with mention of the extra-curricular involvement of students, and attending to arrangements for the graduation ceremony. It worked closely with the assistant principal (students) and advised the principal.

The ancillary staffing committee met as required to recommend to the principal on the deployment of ancillary staff members in the college. Its membership included the registrar, one senior teacher, an elected teacher and a nominated ancillary staff member.

Palmer. One of the more interesting features of Palmer High School and one of the reasons for selecting it for case study analysis was the sophisticated system of internal decision making that had evolved over the years. More than any other school visited Palmer had devolved the power of decision making to the staff body.

Within the present structures of staff decision making at Palmer High School there existed two major decision-making groups: faculty groups and the democratically elected staff council and its committees. Other less influential structures included general staff meetings and meetings of the principal and his deputies. The different elements of these structures (who attended, how often they attended, the meeting procedures, the role of the organization, typical agenda items, methods of communication, and intergroup relationships) have been described in some detail by Quirk (1977) in an industrial democracy paper concerning representative decision making. The paper by Quirk was written in 1977. Generally, the statements made by him still apply but since that date an ancillary staff representative has been added to the staff council.

The most important of the decision-making structures was the staff council. Decisions made at council had to be ratified at general staff meetings, a two-third majority vote being required to reject staff council decisions. Within the constitution it was stated that there was no right of veto on decisions made by the staff or a representative body of that staff. There were seven permanent sub-committees of the staff council: curriculum, finance, policy, learning assistance/counselling, executive, primary school liaison and camps. The most interesting of these was perhaps the executive committee which consisted of the president, vice-president, and secretary of the staff council, the principal and deputy principals, one other elected member of the staff council and a student representative. Its role was executive, to streamline the operations of the staff council and to make recommendations. Interim decisions, to be ratified at staff council, could be made by this committee. In many ways such a committee with its very senior representation went against the collegiate philosophy and democratic organization of the school. The principal noted he had been opposed to its formation as he felt that its composition was unnecessarily power based. It was interesting to note that it had never met.

The faculty groups, although only having representative input into school-wide policy decisions, were very important in the initiation of policy with respect to their own teaching areas. The development of curricula, the allocation of teachers and students to classes, the suggestion of teaching styles and an input into timetabling were all aspects that involved faculties. This involvement could be initiated via administrative staff (for example the deputy principal responsible for timetabling) or via committees (especially the curriculum committee) or it could take the form of independent action. It appeared also that the presence of faculty administration offices encouraged this independence of action.

The model of representative decision making currently used at Palmer High School provided an opportunity for all staff to comment on policies under discussion, on changes being proposed and to propose initiatives. It had developed over a number of years

initially from the discussions of a small group of staff involved in the setting up of the school. At one stage, decisions were taken at voluntary general staff meetings but with a larger staff, variable attendance and the slowness in reaching decisions the system was adapted. It is possible that the system will continue to be modified over the years.

The work by Quirk (1977 and 1978) and also that by Lovegrove and Parsons (1979) into staff participation in decision making, as well as the comments made by staff at the school were able to pinpoint some of the advantages and disadvantages of the structure. A number of possible disadvantages of the staff council have been listed by a previous member of staff (Farrant, 1976):

- procedures can get too bogged down with the formation of sub-committees;
- decisions need to be ratified by general staff;
- decisions may be compromises not wholly satisfactory to any party.

Another previous staff member had commented that some of the issues brought before Council could have been decided by administration as they were of relative insignificance and needed to be based on the practicalities of time and place. The same person also made the point that because the system encouraged commitment by staff it could also lead to tensions as people might take stands on issues that were closely contested.

Although the principal had renounced any power of veto he did not consider this to be a disadvantage and in no way did he feel restricted. His argument was that if his opinions were not acceptable to a majority of professionally educated and informed people then these opinions were most likely wrong. If staff had been misinformed, it was still possible to reverse decisions if sufficient staff could be convinced. He did not feel that he had relinquished decision making, in fact he still made many decisions each day on administrative matters which could be challenged at staff council meetings but invariably would not be. From talks with staff it was also clear that the influence of the principal was still important, not in the sense of a refusal to challenge his views because of his status, but more in the sense that his views and philosophies were generally acceptable. The principal agreed, however, that the structures of decision making were time consuming and he also felt that the student input to the system was weak.

Among the advantages of the staff council listed by the previous staff member (Farrant, 1976) were:

- all who are affected by decisions help to make them;
- the capacity to influence decisions arises from excellence and not from hierarchical positions;
- the system is designed to create comprehensive points of view;
- bad decisions can be rectified;
- lobbying is not possible.

The point was made by the principal and reiterated by Lovegrove and Parsons (1979) that it is not possible to suggest that every school that established a participative system would necessarily find positive reaction among teachers. At Palmer High School, the principal and his initial staff were, and still are, committed to this idea. There was a collegial relationship between the principal and deputies with no determined hierarchy. Broad overlapping areas of responsibility were determined by agreement. This spirit was passed on to all staff through the structures devised. In the case of Palmer High School, despite some of the accepted problems it would appear from discussions with staff and from the studies of Quirk (1978) and of Lovegrove and Parsons (1979) that the participative system seemed to have increased teachers' satisfaction and resulted in more effective decisions which concerned the content and process of student learning.

Summary. The preceding descriptions have sought to document the differing systems of involving staff in decision making operating at the schools visited. In most instances these systems sought substantially to involve staff in the process. The extent to which this was performed varied between schools with Palmer High School providing an example of the most democratic system. Here the principal had relinquished his power of veto, a decision he felt to be important in generating the correct atmosphere for co-operative decision making.

In situations where the number of experienced teachers without promotional positions can be expected to grow, school principals will probably be under increasing pressure to find ways to maximize the contribution of such staff members. At Palmer, the principal would argue further that the contributions of all staff members are equally valuable. It cannot be denied that, where a democratic structure was introduced, decision making became a time-consuming business; however the results from staff satisfaction questionnaires also revealed the greater satisfaction of staff where such democratic structures existed.

Student Participation in Decision Making

At six of the schools visited there existed a students council. Generally, however, such councils did not greatly enable student participation in decision making. At Dennis, for example, the council had been a successful fund-raising body and only involved itself in school affairs to the extent that it occasionally made representations to the principal on such matters as the acquisition of amenities or aspects of school rules. This pattern was similar at Paterson, Richardson and Lindsay, although in the latter, the upper school council had organized a petition to complain about the reading time given for examination papers.

At Palmer High School, the initiation of the students council and students' formal involvement in decision-making structures (two elected students sat on the school council) was a further reflection of the school philosophy that it was beneficial to

involve all people in decisions affecting their lives. However, the principal had been forced to concede that the council had not worked effectively in contributing towards major school decisions and that his high hopes had not materialized. The principal felt that the solution to the problem lay mainly with the appointment of a suitable staff member to help the students organize their council and activities without usurping their freedom. With respect to student representation on the school council it was commented that the effectiveness of this representation varied from one year to the next although generally it was satisfactory. Quirk (1977) had noted that students elected to the staff council had appeared overawed by the situation, but at the time of his study Palmer High School had no Year 12 students.

Similarly, at both Lawson and Kendall, students had representation on the respective school and governing councils. At Kendall student representatives were invited to administrative meetings when student opinion was considered relevant. At Brennan, senior girls receive opportunities for the development of responsibility and leadership. A student council is in operation. It meets at regular intervals and has two staff representatives at each meeting. Committees are formed within the council. Representatives from Years 7 - 10 attend the council meeting. Senior girls are attached to each roll group as peer advisers. At the end of each year a senior three- or four-day camp is conducted to prepare Year 10 girls for the senior school and to aid in the formation of a cohesive social group.

Structures for Policy Determination and Implementation

The preceding sections concentrated on the extent of community, staff or student participation in decision-making processes rather than on actual structures. It is worth considering the structures as they related to the three elements of decision making outlined earlier: (1) development of aims; (2) development of structures to implement aims; and (3) development of structures to evaluate school programs.

The Development of Aims All but one of the secondary schools visited had a written statement of their school aims which was reviewed fairly frequently. The exceptional school was Lindsay which at the time of the visit was preparing school policy documents through its decision-making structures. Interestingly, however, at Lindsay despite the lack of such a written policy the school had recently undergone a major structural change (a move to a sub-school structure) which reflected a school policy advocating a welfare ethos. Similarly, certain alterations to the scheme had occurred as a result of a further unwritten school policy related to the necessity for a general education. This situation at Lindsay did reveal that major school policy could be implemented without written statements of goals: the rationale for and against the various policy initiatives at the school had been fully discussed at staff meetings. Nevertheless, there was evidence from discussions with staff, that commitment to the new structure may have

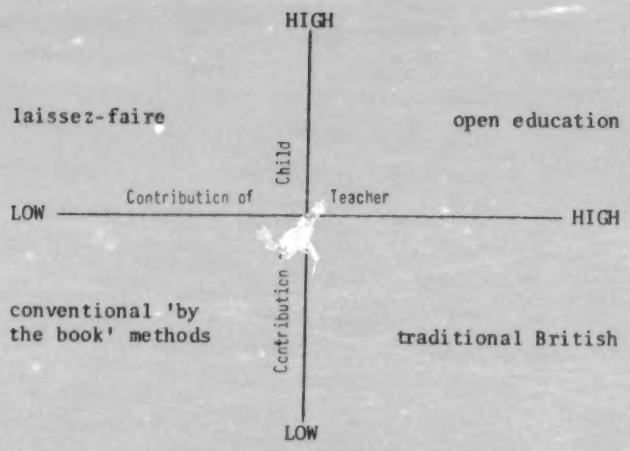

Figure 10.1 Possible Roles of a Secondary School Teacher (Taken from Bussis and Chittenden, 1979)

been lessened by the lack of a written charter agreed by and uniting staff in its objectives. Certainly at the school the structure had undergone considerable alteration.

In one or two other schools the policy statements were rather general comments which did not link closely any special characteristics of the student body with any proposed school programs. In some schools visited, however, the policy statements were generally very carefully designed and were impressive documents.

Palmer. In the latest document four major aims were stated:

- the school should help students to develop and extend their own interests and abilities;
- the school should help students to develop responsibility and self-discipline;
- the school should help students to develop increasing tolerance, mutual respect, mutual understanding and human sympathy;
- the school should take steps to become an integral part of the community and society.

The elaborated aims developed from these general objectives were outlined in Chapter 9. In trying to elucidate further the philosophy at the school, the principal was guided by a model of education described by Bussis and Chittenden (1979). These authors attempted to conceptualize the possible roles of the teacher diagrammatically (see

Figure 10.1). The principal at Palmer stated that the aim of the school was to operate in the top right-hand corner of the schema, that is with a high contribution of both the child and the teacher (referred to as 'open education' in the diagram).

Historically, Palmer High School was established as a model open-plan school and the education department allowed special selection of the original staff. This initial group of teachers had time to debate and consider a school philosophy before the school itself had opened fully, and the present structure and philosophy of the school owed much to this early period. However, the structures of decision making which developed over time also provided a means of input from all staff and a vehicle for change. In this context the philosophical ideas of the school were constantly debated. The establishment of the Mixed Faculty School was a response to the wish of a group of teachers to advance a particular approach to teaching. The different school structures and the program offered were very closely related to the philosophical statements.

Brennan. Faced with a student intake characterized by a high proportion of students new to Australia and with a wide range of language and learning difficulties, Brennan had been forced to rethink its basic philosophy of educational provision. The resultant statement of school aims and objectives set out in some detail the broad goals which the school was trying to achieve for individual students and for the school community as a whole. Preceding detailed statements on the objectives of the school with respect to the development amongst students of moral values, aesthetic values, desirable attitudes, knowledge and understanding, skills, health, recreation, and social development, were two broad statements on the development of excellence in the individual and the total school. It was stated that with regard to the individual student, the general aim of the school was

> to produce a well balanced adaptable clear thinking individual who is able to make meaningful value judgments and is capable of worthwhile participation in community development which is beneficial to herself, family and society in order to lead to an improvement in the quality of life.

In the case of the total school, the statement of objectives indicated that the aim was

> to create a school society providing pupils and staff with opportunities for growth, self-identification and to provide the environment to develop the individual.

Within such broad statements of school philosophy a number of different emphases were possible. Recognizing this, Brennan in 1979 attempted to discern the areas of school activity which were seen by the teaching staff as being of greatest relevance. This process involved asking staff to rank in order of importance 10 educational objectives from a list of 25 such objectives. After the results of the survey were tabulated, it was clear that staff placed highest priority upon those aims related to traditional educational objectives relating to the development of knowledge and skills. Of much lower priority was the group of objectives relating to the emotional

development of students, followed by objectives concerned with developing skills in students relating to the choice of employment and participation in leisure activities, and those objectives relating to the involvement of students in the community. The high emphasis at Brennan upon the development of students' skills and knowledge was reflected in many aspects of the school program and in patterns of resource allocation.

At Brennan there was general acceptance of the view that to develop the student to the limit of her cognitive potential, it was necessary to group students by ability levels. Such an approach was more understandable at Brennan than in other secondary schools because of the high mobility of students and the large proportion of students with language difficulties. Teachers were generally of the belief that ability groupings enabled the teacher to cater more adequately for individual differences amongst students, and that in any event students preferred to study with others of similar ability.

An important role perceived by the Brennan staff was for the school to facilitate the integration of students born overseas with the wider Australian society, while at the same time assisting such students to maintain pride in their backgrounds, and to increase understanding amongst the general student body of a range of non-Anglo-Saxon cultures. To achieve these ends the school had developed units involving local history, local geography and multicultural studies, as well as encouraging a range of extra-curricular activities such as multicultural days.

An important part of the school philosophy was the role perceived for the whole of the teaching staff in overcoming the language difficulties faced by many of the Brennan students. Accordingly, even though specialist language teachers were available on the staff, it was school policy to develop, through in-service days and other activities, an awareness amongst all staff of the responsibilities of teachers in a multicultural school, and to encourage staff to integrate, as far as possible, language development into their everyday teaching program.

Kendall. The college had developed a statement of purposes, aims and objectives which reflected and explicated the general intentions of the senior colleges. The statement had been developed through an extensive process of consultation and discussion extending over a year from the end of 1979. In future, curriculum proposals would be checked against the statement as part of the process of curriculum development. It seemed that one stimulus for its development was the need for such a statement in evaluating new curriculum proposals. Draft proposals of the statements had been prepared by the principal and the assistant principal responsible for the curriculum for presentation to the college curriculum committee. There they had been discussed and revised. Subsequently staff and parents were invited to, and did contribute so that further revisions were made. The document was then discussed at a meeting of parents and the school administration committee before it was ratified by the school's governing council.

The preamble to the statement stressed the provision of a 'general education' incorporating 'knowledge, skills, attitudes and understandings' to enable students to develop to 'full potential as individuals and to be effective members of society'. A set of 17 aims and 24 objectives then specified in more detail the meanings which the college attributed to these general statements. The aims and objectives fell into four broad categories: education for self-development, education for community membership, education for leisure, and education for work.

Lawson. It is worth noting that the school entitled its statement as a philosophical statement rather than a set of objectives. The statement was concerned as much with processes and environment as with outcomes. The statement was reviewed once every three years and was not something filed but never examined. The statement was published in school handbooks for student and parent reference and it appeared to be a reference point for staff in discussing school policy. For these reasons it is worth quoting from this document.

The kind of school we want is a place where:

1 Learning should take place in a friendly, co-operative, structured, flexible environment catering for individual difference in interests and capabilities.

2 The curriculum should be general, i.e. undue emphasis should not be placed on such factors as specialization, sexism, competition and vocational training so that the curriculum will be open ended for all students for the first four years.

3 While primary consideration should be given to teaching skills of numeracy and literacy, the importance of developing the wider intellectual skills as well as motor and social skills is recognized.

4 Emphasis should be placed on the tolerance and consideration of others, and the appreciation of the environment in which students work and live.

5 The school should be an integral part of the community and work with other educational forces to provide the best possible educational experiences.

Summary. The preceding descriptions were intended as examples of some of the processes that schools had gone through to develop their statement of philosophy and in most cases the care that had been taken to link this to the characteristics of the student body. The structures that had developed in these schools in a large part stemmed from these original aims. Where well thought-out philosophical statements were available, staff members were able to feel a commitment to the stated policy and evaluation was made more possible as objectives were more specific.

The development of structures to achieve aims. A previous section of the chapter discussed in some detail the process of decision making at the different schools which enabled programs and structures to be devised to meet stated aims. The view was stated that where staff participation was higher staff satisfaction was correspondingly high, and

the principal at Palmer would also have argued that where staff participation was higher there was more informal input into the development of structures.

One of the more important issues in the creation of the right environment to achieve aims relates to staff development. At a number of the schools (Brennan and Palmer for example), careful attention had been paid to providing (either inside the school or outside) staff development where the situations required such assistance. As examples were the in-service days at Brennan to instil in teachers the problems and strategies of teaching in a multicultural school, and at Palmer the external staff development provided for staff operating the Alternative Mode.

The development of structures for evaluation. Earlier in this chapter, the argument was advanced that external evaluation could be very beneficial and education department booklets already prepared could be useful for schools. It was felt that such periodic external reviews should be complemented with other internal reviews of specific programs. At Palmer it was noted that the Mixed Faculty School had undergone an internal evaluation, the Unscheduled Time Scheme an evaluation which made use of external resources and the decision-making structures had undergone an external evaluation. It is argued in fact that the strategies proposed for primary schools (see earlier) are equally fitted to secondary schools.

Summary

This chapter has examined the policy determination processes in the 16 schools visited. The discussions have separated out two main themes within this:

- the extent of participation (community, staff and student) in the processes of policy determination and implementation;
- the structures devised to generate organizational objectives, to implement organizational objectives and to evaluate such objectives.

To a very large extent, these issues and the problems schools encountered were the same in primary schools as in secondary schools. Concerning community participation, although the consensus view in a few of the schools visited was opposed to enabling community personnel to affect professional issues, the concept was accepted in many of the schools visited. Nevertheless, most of these schools had not found it easy to generate real participation. Probably, as community representatives become more accustomed to their involvement in school affairs so their participation will increase. At Boldrewood and Brennan the need to educate the community about school programs and educational issues was seen as a necessary prerequisite to any useful community participation. It is naive to expect that parents, whose experiences of education were most likely very dated, could easily adjust to an advisory role. Their involvement usually begins because of a practical concern for their own child and only gradually can it be

expected that a more universal approach will be achieved. It may be that schools desiring full participation should think initially of ways of involving parents in school programs.

Another issue concerning community participation relates to the representativeness of such participation. Associations, councils and the like are likely to attract those people who feel reasonably confident in the public arena. In most schools drawing a wide range of students, this is unlikely to represent the whole student body. Consequently, the staff representatives and the principal in particular have key roles to ensure that the debate does not overlook minority elements of the school community.

At the outset of the case study the fieldworkers had probably expected primary schools to be run in a fairly bureaucratic or even autocratic way with the power of decisions resting firmly with the principal and perhaps a few other members of staff. Compared with the secondary schools visited there was evidence that to some degree this occurred. However, the extent of staff participation in primary schools was surprisingly high and it seeemed likely that the only thing limiting further participation was the full teaching loads that the majority of primary teachers had. In this respect, then, the perception of schools as 'loosely coupled' organizations (Stackhouse, 1978) seemed more fitting than the bureaucratic view. In the literature reviewed, the suggestion was made that the background and training of primary teachers could well lead them to desire less involvement in school-wide issues and more involvement in class issues. Despite the fairly high involvement of the staff, the evidence nevertheless provided some support for this theory. In some cases the executive staff of schools had instigated an involvement in school-wide decisions that the rest of the staff did not necessarily encourage. At Boldrewood quite a number of the staff, for example, would have welcomed a little more autocracy with respect to school policy provided they had more of the decision-making time to discuss year level, unit level and subject level issues. At this school, however the decision-making machinery had possibly become a little too complicated and time consuming.

It was also argued that because staff generally would be less interested and less involved in policy issues the position of the principal as educational leader in a primary school would be a key position and one perhaps of more importance than the principal's position in a secondary school. At Palmer High School, where the principal had relinquished all rights of veto over staff decisions, it was argued that the school was self-managing through the tapping of the professional expertise and enthusiasm of many of the staff. The fieldworkers, without denying this valuable input, still believed that the influence of the principal through the presentation of his educational philosophies at staff meetings was a very important one. However, there was evidence that secondary school principals had at their disposal, if they wished to make use of it, the capacity to generate a very rich educational debate and input. In the primary schools this did not

seem so easily instigated and as a result the role of principal and senior members of staff took an added dimension. This is not the time and place to discuss the selection or training of principals but these issues are obviously of key importance.

With respect to student participation, the problem was similar to that of community participation. Only one or two schools had made a serious attempt to generate student input (at others student councils were intended only as fund-raising or social bodies) and this had not been altogether successful. Once again this is perhaps a matter of time: as students generally are involved more in such activities and if schools (as some argue should happen) move more towards enabling students and adults to be less separated and more co-operative then the capacity for a real input may develop.

The issue of participation is only one aspect of successful policy determination and implementation. This chapter examined structures designed to enhance the policy determination processes. With respect to the development of aims and goals within schools, the evidence from the schools visited was that this process was not always approached in a sophisticated manner. Where schools had developed well-thought-out aims relevant to their student and teacher body, and proposed strategies to meet these aims, generally schools appeared to have generated enthusiasm and commitment in the school. Problems had occurred in one school where the commitment of a number of staff members was not sufficient to enable the strategies to be implemented fully. Neesham (1978) in discussing worker participation in one school commented:

> Organisational change in any bureaucratic system is difficult. The success so far of such changes at Hamilton have occurred basically because of the involvement and commitment of a large number of teachers. The changes themselves were brought about by a logical progression of steps, namely:
>
> (a) a philosophy was developed;
>
> (b) school goals and objectives were formally stated, submitted to and accepted by teachers;
>
> (c) decisions were made and policy-making procedures were formalised;
>
> (d) planning both on a short and long term basis was instituted;
>
> (e) development of those plans proceeded along with communication with teachers;
>
> (f) implementation of those changes accepted by teachers was decided upon;
>
> (g) the new system was monitored continuously in order that minor adjustments may be made and the goals achieved.
>
> For any degree of success it was evident that as the organisation changed so the people within it must accept changes to their traditional roles. (Neesham, 1978:13)

As well as the need for stated objectives and for teacher commitment the statement above raises issues of staff development and evaluation. The previous sections argued for schools to consider closely the possibilities of evaluation, in particular evaluation which draws on outside assistance, as school staff themselves may

be too closely entwined with programs to be fully objective. The preceding argument also stressed the need to distinguish this from education department assessment of individual teachers. Principals and staff should be concerned with evaluation because they are concerned with developing strategies to meet the needs of their student body. It was argued earlier and is re-iterated here that one practice might involve schools in developing a general educational strategy which is evaluated each five years with assistance from outside personnel and perhaps through the use of education department evaluation guidelines. In addition to that, other evaluations could occur along the lines of the three separate evaluations that occurred at Palmer into the unscheduled scheme, the decision-making structures and the Mixed Faculty School. These could be internal evaluations but even here assistance from outside people would be beneficial.

Concerning staff development Day (1981) has commented:

> Staff development and organization development are a gestalt of school improvement; both are necessary for maximum growth and effective change. They are complementary human processes, inextricably interwoven, dynamic, interactive, nonlinear, and incredibly complex. (Day, 1981:2-3)

Roark and Davis (1981) commented further on the interrelationship of these two aspects:

> In summary, staff development and OD (Organizational Development) both work to improve schools and ultimately education, but from somewhat different perspectives. Staff development attempts to achieve its goals primarily through an increase in individual competence while OD concentrates on organizational competence. Both strive to improve the lot of both teachers and students and to improve the quality of education as a whole. In the process of working to achieve their goals, both methods ultimately affect both the individuals and the organization. (Roark and Davis, 1981:56)

As McKibbin and Joyce (1980:253) have noted, staff development fulfils three needs

- a societal need to create an educational system which can regenerate itself continuously;
- a school need to meet the needs of its community and student body;
- a personal need to enable staff to live a satisfying and stimulating professional life.

Although these authors argue that the personal characteristics of staff members are key variables for successful staff development, the case studies have really only been able to examine in a very limited way the second of these needs. Several examples were presented of staff members taking the opportunities available under externally funded in-service programs and these schemes appeared well viewed by the schools. With respect to the Services and Development Program the Schools Commission (1981) commented:

> Over the past triennium there has been a marked increase in the number of funded activities where staff development projects have been integrated with school evaluation and school improvement efforts. School-focused activities have included seminars for groups of subject teachers, residential workshops involving

> the whole staff of a school and parents, and a wide range of other within-school programs that have been designed to improve professional skills through school-level evaluation, organisational development or curriculum development projects. This increasing emphasis on school-focused activities accords with recent research findings in Australia and overseas that show that the most effective forms of staff development are those that are conducted as an integral part of an ongoing problem-solving and improvement process within the school. (Australia. Schools Commission, 1981:416)

In line with this view, the visits to schools revealed the importance of the day-to-day staff development activities that can occur where school structures are designed to produce this co-operative effort. The examples of the syndicate approach in New Zealand schools and in particular the integration of staff development into the team structures at Pritchard were especially noticeable. In the secondary schools where the faculties may provide this service with respect to individual subjects such divisions seemed to hinder in some ways the school-wide staff development approach and more use of external projects to meet individual teacher needs seemed to result.

CHAPTER 11

ALTERNATIVE SCHOOL ORGANIZATIONS: ISSUES ARISING FROM SOME SPECIAL SCHOOLS

The case study phase of the Staffing and Resources Study involved visits to a few rather special schools, whose organizations were substantially different from traditional primary or secondary schools. Included in the 16 schools visited were four such schools, Kendall College, Pritchard Intermediate Primary School, Paterson District High School and Dennis Technical School. Some of the features of these schools have already been discussed in earlier chapters. The purpose of this chapter is to examine those characteristics of the four schools which are unique to their particular organization and to investigate the extent to which these features assist or hamper the provision of education or the school organizational processes.

Kendall College

Kendall College was an example of a new development in Australian education: the senior college. Such institutions, which provide education in Years 11 and 12 only, have recently become an established part of two education systems in Australia. The rationale for the establishment of such institutions involved both educational and administrative considerations. Educationally, they were expected to provide a broad curriculum which incorporated considerable student choice and they were expected to allow greater scope for students to manage their own affairs with less compulsion and less exercise of teacher authority. Consistent with this view, the colleges were expected to have considerable autonomy in curriculum matters so that they could respond to the needs of students. Administratively, it was expected that such institutions would be a more efficient means of providing resources for the specialist studies undertaken by students in the senior levels of secondary school.

More specifically, the Campbell Report (1973:36-37) of the Working Committee on College Proposals for the Australian Capital Territory commented that restructuring secondary education along the lines envisaged in the college proposal would have a number of advantages:

(1) It would allow the creation of an environment more suited to a particular age range.

(2) It would allow more responsibility to be placed with the students.

(3) New institutions could stimulate community involvement.

(4) It would allow greater ease in leaving and re-entering formal education.

(5) Wider variety of choice in programs would be possible.

(6) More efficient use of resources would be facilitated.

(7) Variety in teaching methods and student groupings would be facilitated.

(8) More freedom in staffing structures would be possible.

(9) It would allow the development of smaller junior [illegible] schools.

There can be no doubt that some of the perceived advantages of the college system could be achieved in a traditional organizational structure. The move away from the 'custodial' nature of secondary schooling, for example, was seen in the Alternative Mode provision at Palmer, and the desire to develop greater responsibility in students was also tackled at Palmer through their involvement in policy and curriculum decision making. Similarly, community involvement and the easier movement of students in and out of educational institutions do not necessarily have to follow from a college structure and can be encouraged through innovative practices in traditional schooling. However, it was anticipated that the new structures would provide a greater likelihood of these factors occurring.

In addition, the specific resource issues mentioned in some points of the Working Committee were considered more directly relevant to the new structures. The greater breadth of curriculum without incurring very low class sizes (with the necessity of large class sizes elsewhere) was a prime factor favouring the establishment of colleges. It was felt that the new structure could also enable a greater variety of methods of grouping students than possible in a traditional structure as well as enabling the establishment of schools of more viable sizes. Other schools visited had attempted to offer a very broad curriculum but this had inevitably been at the expense of other attributes of schooling or at resource costs. For example, at Palmer large class sizes in core areas and low non-contact time were the price paid for the wide-ranging curriculum. At Lawson, the general curriculum in the middle school had been provided through the introduction of term-based units: a reduction in the time devoted to study of different areas was therefore the price being paid at such schools. At Paterson, a wide range of subjects quite clearly required some extra funding, low non-contact times for teachers and their willingness to teach outside their own specialities. At Lindsay, the general philosophy had been to a certain extent at the sacrifice of the sub-school structures as it was accepted that electives could not be offered within sub-school boundaries.

At Kendall there were three ways in which the breadth and flexibility of the curriculum was extended. First, by having an institution exclusively concerned with Years 11 and 12 there were many more students in those year levels than in a full secondary school. On average a full secondary school might have about 150 students in Years 11 and 12 combined. By contrast, Kendall had over 600 students. Consequently, it was possible to provide resources in curriculum areas which might only appeal to a small percentage of students without forming a great number of very small classes. Some small classes could be maintained because the size of the operation at this level allowed sufficient flexibility in resource deployment to balance such a practice against slightly

larger classes in other areas. At Kendall small classes were maintained in some languages and in music because the college desired to maintain the presence of those areas of study. Even within discipline areas it was possible to provide variety with such provisions as two types of chemistry programs and five different sequences of mathematics. A large number of Year 11 and Year 12 students in one institution, or alternatively requiring students to move between institutions, seems to be a necessary condition for this variety to be viable (see McKenzie and Keeves, 1982).

Secondly, the curriculum structure facilitated varied provisions. In the studies undertaken there was no arbitrary distinction between Year 11 and Year 12. Students' programs were planned as a coherent two-year sequence. Moreover these programs were not based on set year-length subjects of the traditional sort. Rather students selected from term-length units which were combined in different ways to form various major and minor courses. Kendall College had considerable autonomy in developing curricula subject to accreditation by external agencies of those courses which were to lead to tertiary studies. It was a system which appeared to balance well the desire for flexibility based on units of short duration with the need for coherence in the way units were grouped to form courses.

Thirdly, Kendall College was able to leaven its academic curriculum with units and courses it devised outside of the requirements of tertiary entrance. In the provision of these registered units there was considerable scope for enriching the curriculum. In practice, because of the aspirations of the students involved, the extension of the curriculum in the area of registered courses had not been fully developed nor had the development of courses in practical areas. However, the system did allow for these to expand if there was demand for such provisions.

In its operation Kendall College exemplified the proposition that decisions about curricula are essentially decisions about resource allocation. At Kendall given a fixed level of total resources a decision to provide a new course was usually a decision to replace an existing course either in the same faculty or in another faculty. Such a decision would therefore involve as a most important consideration whether appropriate teaching resources were available or whether such resources could be reallocated.

In another sense, resource allocation decisions were an important part of the operation of this sort of curriculum. To operate effectively staff time needed to be given to advising students about course structures, to administration, and to curriculum development and accreditation. At Kendall internal college decisions had been made to allocate teaching resources to course planning advice and curriculum development. It seemed that between 10 and 15 per cent of teaching resources were reallocated in this way. In the case of Kendall College much of the administrative burden of operating a complex structure was alleviated by virtue of its access to good computing facilities and expertise. However, the college did express the view that more ancillary staff were

needed in the areas of student welfare support, general administration, and assistance with teaching materials. The provision of students' references was one example of an area where additional support was seen as necessary. In a college of some 650 students, each year about half those students would be leaving college to enter either further studies or the labour market. As the college regarded it as important to provide detailed references, this resulted in a considerable work-load to which resources had to be allocated. The remaining half of the students would be new to the college and requiring intensive counselling about course planning. All students would be of an age where careers advice was particularly important. Hence in the provision of resources for colleges of this type there appeared to be a need to recognize these aspects of the college operation particularly where non-teaching staff were concerned.

The practice of placing the locus of authority for curriculum decisions more distinctly at the institutional rather than the system level appeared to have several other ramifications. It resulted in a different concept of accountability or responsibility so that responsibility was through a governing council in addition to an hierarchical chain from central office to institution. The governing council had real power in policy determination which was an important point of the new structure in maintaining the credibility of a locally developed program. It also resulted in an elaborate system of decision making within the institution which involved staff to a considerable extent and which placed the responsibility for taking decisions as close as possible to the point at which they were implemented. In one important area the power of the college and its governing council was limited. While it could develop curricula, determine to a large extent its staffing configuration, and allocate resources within the college, it had only limited involvement in the selection and appointment of teaching staff. That remains an unresolved area in the operation of senior colleges and schools in general.

The grouping together of Years 11 and 12 students at Kendall College added to the flexibility of the school, a practice perhaps facilitated by the innovatory nature of the school. Such a practice does not need to be the province of the college alone, however, and as has already been noted in an earlier chapter there is perhaps scope for the traditional schools to think along these lines. Such an approach would require a careful consideration of the curriculum offerings at such years and might well necessitate a unit system as employed at Kendall or as employed in Years 8 - 10 at Lawson. Such a practice is probably made easier in those subject areas which are less sequential in nature but even in sequential subject areas there may be scope for rethinking current practices.

Paterson District High School

Paterson District High School was unusual in its organizational structure in that it was an example of a school with pre-primary, primary, and secondary enrolments. The

secondary area of the school took students only from Years 8 to 10. Those students who wished to pursue their education beyond Year 10 needed to travel to a neighbouring centre, or alternatively enrol in correspondence studies. The principal reported that in effect at Paterson no student had enrolled for such studies, and that the majority of Year 10 students would move into the workforce with only about 30 per cent pursuing their educational career (mainly in the form of an agricultural college enrolment).

The major factor affecting enrolments at such schools appeared to be economic but the effects were complex. Even though in times of poor returns for farmers there might be sales of farms and a consequent decline in primary enrolments (recent years had seen a small decline) such conditions would on the other hand probably reduce the number of students who were sent to the city private schools and thereby maintain secondary enrolments. When farming conditions were good, these factors worked in the opposite direction. There would appear to be little pattern in the private school intake for the area around Paterson: in 1979 over half the Year 7 students transferred to private schools but in 1980 it was estimated that only about 20 per cent would do so. The principal believed that as well as economic considerations the improved status of district high school education was helping in attracting secondary students.

The principal considered it necessary to do as much as possible to attract students and retain them in the school. As examples of this, the school was organizing a Year 8 parent information day on district high school education, an information booklet was to be sent to all Year 7 students and their parents in the region, and they were to be invited to the school for an information and orientation day. In addition, the school attempted to offer a very wide curriculum range, a practice not usually possible in very small district high schools, to make the school as similar as possible to the competing city schools. That Paterson was able to offer such a range of activities was due to two main factors: the use of paid community personnel in the teaching program, and the wide range of options that staff of the school were prepared to take. As examples of options taught by people from outside the school, pottery, drama and French had all been timetabled into the daily program and guitar lessons, instruction in leatherwork and crafts had also been available but not timetabled into the daily program. The wide range of options offered at Paterson was essentially made possible because all teachers were prepared to teach subjects outside their area of specialization. Although the school had attempted to offer a curriculum similar to that of urban schools, the staff were unsure to what extent the education department would have endorsed this approach.

The structure of district high schools offers the capacity to share resources across the primary and secondary areas. In theory it would be possible for a great deal of cross-teaching if the timetable could be made flexibile enough. At Paterson, in effect, this did not happen although the principal did express hope that it could be achieved if extra staff were to be allocated to the secondary area with increasing enrolments.

This did not mean, however, that there were no links between the two areas of the school. Across-school subject meetings provided a formal link, and the mathematics/science specialist had frequently offered assistance to primary teachers (in particular in the use of science equipment and the like). In addition, Year 10 students had acted as resources for Year 5 students in science. In manual arts the only involvement with primary students would seem to be during the secondary orientation day, during the two-day enrichment period (see later) and on the informal occasions when students came to see the machines in the manual arts room. The links between home economics and primary students were also more informal in that the involvement might take the form of some Indonesian cooking being done when primary students had a topic on Indonesia in their social studies program. The social studies teacher had a more formal link with the primary area in that he had duties across the whole school related to the language and learning approach, the K-10 social studies syllabus and the development of students' spatial cognition skills by the design of a progressive set of lessons as a course within social studies. Another teacher with close contact with both the secondary and primary area of the school was the support teacher, who taught half in the secondary area and half in the primary. Appointed to the primary area as a trained primary teacher the reason for this person's involvement in secondary teaching (drama, basic mathematics and English) was to gain experience helpful for his future aspiration of becoming a secondary teacher. The reason, then, was staff-related rather than for an organizational purpose.

Two aspects of the co-operation of the primary and secondary areas are worth some elaboration: the language and learning approach and the enrichment days. It was school policy to adopt the language and learning approach, but in effect only one or two teachers at Paterson had really attempted the technique which was considered unorthodox and even threatening to some teachers, as it did involve a period of introduction where teachers did not have the same degree of control over students as obtained in traditional approaches. The regulation teacher had demonstrated lessons in other classes but this had not happened often as the approach was still in its infancy at Paterson. One teacher using the system was the mathematics/science specialist who, despite giving advice on mathematics groups to a primary teacher, felt the approach was more suitable to science teaching than to the progressive and conceptual nature of mathematics. This view was generally shared by the other (primary) teacher involved in the approach who was able to describe various examples of its use in social sciences, science and even poetry. One interesting approach described, and one developed from the ideas of the regulation teacher, was the scheme to get students to write for audiences other than the teacher. This teacher required his students to write to other high school students who were asked to read the work, circle mistakes and comment both positively and negatively on the work.

The other area of co-operation between the primary and secondary schools concerned the enrichment days, organized in 1980. Paterson School had hosted students from seven neighbouring schools for two days of enrichment activities. The project had been funded under the Priority Country Schools Program which provided significant additional resources for isolated schools such as Paterson. At the enrichment days, students were divided into two sections, junior Years 1-4 and the seniors Years 5-10. The junior children were then divided into smaller groups and timetabled to rotate between a number of activities such as kite making, crafts, mini-olympics, cooking, horse riding, pottery and drama. In the senior section students chose six activities from a list of over 20, including floral art, film-making, badminton, crafts, cooking, pottery, chess, drawing, weaving, etc. The timetabling and supervision were achieved through staff and community help, with over 40 parents involved.

The final aspect of district high schools which is a reflection of their size relates to the allocation of staff, in particular in the secondary area of the school. It was generally thought at the school that there was a tendency to send inexperienced teachers to district high schools, whereas it was considered that ideally the situation required young enthusiastic teachers who had had a few years experience. In addition, it was also considered that there was a tendency for the department to alternate the core teachers between English and social studies, and between science and mathematics. At the time of the visit to Paterson, the school was satisfied with the subject specialities of teachers but it was very concerned about which teachers would replace those leaving at the end of the year, and turnover tended to be high at schools such as Paterson. Despite the extra loads in teaching, preparation and quasi-senior teacher roles, teachers at the school enjoyed the involvement and responsibilities required of them and advocated the position as being excellent training and experience.

Despite the links, both formal and informal, between the primary and secondary areas of the school, in particular the assistance the specialist secondary teachers were able to give their primary colleagues, it seemed that Paterson had not been able to exploit fully the potential advantages of the primary-secondary relationship because of the heavy timetabling commitment of the secondary teachers and limited non-contact time that primary teachers received. On the other hand a more obvious advantage of that relationship was the easy transition stage that Year 7 students had on moving to a secondary grade in the same school. This limited interrelationship is probably in part a result of the traditional attitude towards such schools that they are seen as two distinct schools. The review of district high school education in one State may well provide guidelines and flexibility to schools to break down this view. Writing in the journal District High School Education, Clarke (1980) has argued for the development of a co-ordinated curriculum and flexible staff deployment and timetabling to maximize the benefits of having in one school students of such wide age ranges.

Clarke argued that if flexibility were added to the advantages that small district high schools provided with respect to their size (the closer student-teacher relationship producing the better pastoral provision) and location (the parents and community are usually very willing to support the school) the schools would be able to offer a very rewarding education designed for a total development of each child's personality.

Dennis Technical School

There were two aspects of Dennis Technical School that stood out from other schools: the involvement of the school in the appointment of some teaching staff and the balance of the curriculum between the technical and academic areas.

In Chapter 8, mention was made of the involvement of schools in the appointment of some ancillary staff but at technical schools in the State in which Dennis was located the involvement had spread to other staff. Even though subject teaching staff appointments were made by the education department, in the case of the appointment of principal and deputy principal the school community played an important role. Basically this involved the Committee of Classifiers of the Technical Schools Division of the Education Department advertising a vacancy for a principal or deputy principal. Concurrently the school council of the school with the vacancy formed a selection committee. Although the composition of that committee might vary it would generally include the principal, two elected staff members, two elected school council members, one parents' representative and the liaison inspector from the Education Department. The selection committee held preliminary meetings to determine the selection criteria, including such matters as the requirements of the school and the information to be obtained about applicants. The Committee of Classifiers prepared a short list of applicants for the selection committee. Applicants were then interviewed by the Selection Committee and recommendations which would include an order of preference were presented to the Committee of Classifiers. The Committee of Classifiers were not obliged to accept the recommendations and the appointment was subject to appeal to the Teachers Tribunal, but it would appear to be rare for a selection committee decision to be overruled at either point in the procedure. The main advantage of the method was that the selection committee could consider the suitability of an applicant for the circumstances at a particular school. In addition, it involved the school community in what is a most important appointment for school development.

With respect to the balance of academic and technical areas in the school, the philosophy at Dennis was to provide a general and comprehensive secondary education in a form which was generated in response to the needs of the local community. Notwithstanding this philosophy, the school operated within an education department

guideline which suggested about 50 per cent of its teaching effort should be in academic areas and about 50 per cent in practical areas. As an example of the offerings at the school, in Year 7 where all offerings were compulsory, students studied the academic subjects, mathematics, humanities, and science, for a total of 11 hours each week and the practical subjects (art, textiles, home economics, graphics, sheetmetal, woodwork, drama, music and physical education) for a total of 14 hours each week.

In schools which offer many practical subjects it is not uncommon for problems or conflicts to occur in timetabling arrangements. At Dennis Technical School at Year 9, for example, the varying length of time for each elective had tended to exclude girls from taking graphics. All the other three hour subjects were traditionally girls subjects and as a result it seemed unlikely that the girls would include three hours of graphics in place of one of these subjects. It was suggested as an alternative to have all electives as two hour offerings enabling four or five subjects to be taken thereby keeping more options open for later in the school. However, it was also argued that the subjects offered as three hour electives did actually require this length of time.

The issue of the choice of subjects by girls and boys was contentious. Until 1979, boys were excluded from textiles in Years 7 and 8, and girls were similarly excluded from engineering workshop practice subjects in those years. This meant that students had no basis for choosing those subjects at Year 9. By making all students take the same subjects in the first two years, it was hoped to overcome the problem, given that the attitudinal changes in students and parents would take some time. However, the change has been at the expense of the engineering workshop practice subjects which could no longer be included in Years 7 and 8. As a result until Year 9, boys (or girls) were unable to do these subjects. In practice, as a reflection of student preferences in 1979, at Years 10 and 11 there were only three electives being taken which had similar numbers of boys and girls enrolled.

Some of the features of the curriculum at Dennis reflect ways in which technical schools reconciled conflicting expectations. On one hand such schools were expected to provide a range of vocationally oriented trade subjects to equip students to enter the world of work. On the other hand they were expected to give sufficient attention to 'core' studies especially English and mathematics. Though these two sets of pressures need not always be in conflict, some attention has to be given to determine a balance appropriate to the circumstances of each school. At Dennis, some staff believed too little time was given to English and mathematics compared with the electives, while others argued that the vocationally oriented electives were an equally important part of the educational provision for students, and needed at least that time which they were currently allocated. An important function of the democratic decision-making structure at the school was to provide a forum in which differing views such as these could be discussed with a view to establishing the best possible compromise.

Another important aspect of the decision-making structure at Dennis appeared to be the way it developed a cohesion among staff from widely differing backgrounds. It was not uncommon in technical schools for some conflict to occur between teachers in the trades and academic areas, but at Dennis this appeared to be at a minimum.

Pritchard Intermediate Primary School

Pritchard School was a New Zealand intermediate school providing just two years of education roughly equivalent to Years 6 and 7 in Australian schools. There is no Australian equivalent to such schools which exist as part of the New Zealand educational structure and through which proceed about 70 per cent of the government school cohort.

Under the name of a junior high school, as the predecessors to intermediate schools were called until 1932, the first such school was established in 1922. The intermediate school has been the subject of speculation and criticism of different kinds ever since the founding of this first school. The rationale for its establishment was departmental worry over low secondary school retention rates. The New Zealand Minister of Education wrote in 1921:

> It is clear that the most effective method of increasing the period of secondary education is to lower the age at which it is entered upon. (Quoted in Beeby, 1938:13)

At that time it was noted that more than one-quarter of the students of secondary and technical schools remained at school for only one year, thereby obtaining little or no benefit from the schools. It was basically being argued that the point of junction between primary and secondary courses was misplaced. It was expected that such schools would continue their general education so as to avoid the dangers of too early specialization but a portion of their time would be devoted to supplementary courses of elementary secondary education, such as the general or academic course, or the agricultural, mechanical, commercial or domestic science course.

The structure had an experimental and haphazard beginning and in 1930, rather than speed the development of the junior high schools, a move was made to allow the introduction of Latin, French and mathematics to primary schools. In 1932, the education department issued regulations for intermediate schools. Two of the changes that these regulations introduced were the reduction of the period of instruction from three years in the junior high schools to two years, except in special circumstances, and the change in the name to intermediate schools. Historians of this period have not found it easy to explain these changes (Beeby, 1938), but it would seem likely that shortages of funds during the years of the depression contributed.

Beeby (1938:37) concludes that 'New Zealand has never had a bold and consistent policy of intermediate education'. Beeby also drew attention to the somewhat uneasy

balance of primary and secondary components that junior high schools or intermediate schools had:

> If each child is to cover a certain common course of general education, and in addition try himself out on academic, agricultural, mechanical and commercial courses, where, in Forms I and II, is he to find time seriously to begin his secondary studies? If, on the other hand, the brighter child devotes enough time to secondary subjects to constitute a real beginning of their study, he will have insufficient time to try himself out in other directions in which he may have even greater ability than he has at languages and mathematics. This surely is early specialization, and the exploratory function of the school ceases to exist for that child, since his course is decided at the beginning instead of at the end of his intermediate school period. (Beeby, 1938:16-17)

Looking specifically at Pritchard, it is possible to see that the relationship between the secondary and primary components of the school is unique. Modern New Zealand intermediate schools are staffed with specialist teachers who are secondary trained. At Pritchard there were five such staff in the areas of home economics, needlework, woodwork, metalwork and art. The education department regulations, however, precluded the incorporation of specialist teachers as part of the integrated curriculum of the school. Such staff were to teach their specialist subjects independently. It is true that most secondary schools also separate the practical subjects from other subjects but in primary schools the tradition of a more integrated approach to teaching would have encouraged a closer integration. At Pritchard, the regulations governing specialist staff limited their value to the overall school program and isolated them somewhat.

Another aspect of Pritchard, which is related to the unique features of intermediate schools, was the grouping together of the two year levels for most non-specialist activities. It would seem that in schools where only two year levels operate, the schools are less likely to view students solely within their year levels as this would lessen the integration of the school as a whole. As was noted earlier, in Kendall College groupings of Year 11 and 12 students operated. Interestingly, however, the specialist staff still operated on year level structures in line with their secondary training and experience.

It is impossible to generalize about the value of intermediate education from the experiences of one school. Intermediate schools are in many ways bridging schools, bridging between primary and secondary education. Notwithstanding the regulations that determine the allocation of specialist staff, and then limit their use, the extent to which schools succeed in the transitional period depends on their individual approaches. At Pritchard, a great deal of thought had been given to increasing student self-reliance and getting them used to being taught by a number of different teachers. For example, in three of the four teams at the school the amount of direct teaching which occurred in the home space groups was comparatively small. One senior teacher, whilst acknowleding that there would be considerable variation over any year, indicated that a

maximum of one-fifth of the total teaching time would occur in the home groups. However, home group teachers would take some additional responsibility for monitoring the progress of the students from their home group. In general the blocks would be best regarded as integrated groups of students taught by a co-operative team of teachers in which students worked on individually assigned tasks from a plan developed by the team of teachers.

With respect to increasing the self-reliance of students, it was noted in Chapter 9 that all the teams made extensive use of material from which students could work independently and also that some progress apppeared to have been made towards encouraging students to plan their own program of study under guidance from teachers.

Such an approach does not have to be the province of an intermediate school, of course, and in other schools visited the transitional stage of schooling was usually treated in a special way. In Clarke, for example, to assist in a co-ordinated sequential program from the primary to the secondary school, seminar sessions were held with Year 8 and Year 7 teachers, that is last year primary and first year secondary teachers; work samples were shown to secondary teachers; and discussions about assessment were held. In the New Zealand intermediate schools, however, with older students than in Australian primary schools, the scope for this transitional element seemed the greater.

CHAPTER 12

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this chapter is to draw together some of the discussions in previous chapters in an attempt to offer some policy possibilities for schools or education departments. A few of the practices described in earlier chapters evolved as special responses to individual circumstances, and as a result, the degree to which they can provide guidelines to other schools depends on the extent to which schools consider their situations similar. On the other hand, a number of aspects discussed had more general relevance.

The Allocation of Staff to Schools

Staffing Formulae

In the discussions of staff allocation a number of issues arose. The staffing formulae that education departments devise attempt to take account of the various needs that schools have. In Chapter 7 a distinction was made between school management, class related management and class teaching. Implicit in the allocation of staff to schools is some attempt to ensure that these various needs are met: as a result primary and secondary schools may receive general class teachers, specialist teachers, administrative staff and ancillary assistance. That educational systems differed with respect to the configuration of staff in some ways reflected different emphases and priorities. However as Ainley (1982) has shown it has tended to be the richer resource systems that have provided the greater range of staff to meet the various needs. Rather than having formulated a policy about which configuration of staff is most suitable to meet educational needs the range of allocation only varied greatly when systems felt they could afford to offer, say, more specialist staff without adverse effects on the ratio of class teachers to students.

As Ainley (1982) has shown, the staffing formulae in all systems are very closely geared to the concept of overall staff:student ratios. As school size altered, the allocation of staff altered to maintain the balance of staffing ratios. This is, of course, a simplification because certain schools were overstaffed as a result of special needs, for example small secondary schools received extra staff so as to provide a full curriculum range, and other schools received some extra allocation if they were considered disadvantaged. In addition, a small discretionary element applied in most systems. Nevertheless, as Ainley (1982) has shown, the deviation of allocation from predicted formulae was very small. This policy is a reflection of the Australian and New Zealand

educational traditions which has stressed equity in the provision of resources to schools. A fuller discussion of these influences on decision making is to be found in McKenzie and Keeves (1982).

It is easy to understand why a concept of equity in provision should be endorsed in educational systems: it is both easier to administer and probably produces less ill feeling between schools with widely differing allocations. Without wanting to move greatly from this concept there was sufficient evidence from the visits to schools to indicate that too little attention was paid to special needs. This rarely took the form of insufficient class teachers, although most schools argued for more such staff, and some schools felt that overall their class sizes were too high, rather it was in the area of school management where most dissatisfaction occurred. School management, as defined in this report, referred to the areas of subject guidance, student counselling as well as normal administrative duties of running a school. Problems were most noticeable with respect to the smaller schools which lacked senior staff in non-teaching or reduced teaching positions. For example, at Richardson the loss of subject masters was considered to be a real disadvantage in providing professional guidance and at other schools, both primary (for example Morant) and secondary (for example Paterson and Richardson), the need for administrative assistance seemed important.

What emerged from the case studies was evidence that the needs of schools did not reduce, as school size lowered, in the same fashion as the staffing formulae did. Schools had certain basic functions which they had to perform regardless of size. Even though small schools did receive proportionally more senior staff than other schools, there was evidence that this was still insufficient to enable such schools to meet adequately all their needs.

The responses to this situation are various. Educational systems could research more into the needs of schools of different sizes and adjust their allocation formulae in line with these findings. Schools themselves could present to systems staffing requests based on a needs-based local assessment or schools could be given more flexibility over the type of staff configurations desirable for their schools. The evidence from the case studies was overwhelmingly in support of at least adopting the latter of these suggestions, and not just in response to problems of size. There were a number of instances where schools stressed certain aspects of their program, for example, pastoral care, (see Chapter 9), or had developed an overall philosophy yet had little say in the staff to match these emphases. At Franklin, located in a system allowing more flexibility, the way in which the school was able to staff itself to complement the philosophical approach, was especially noticeable. In addition to this strategy, there appeared to be a need for systems generally to rethink the differing needs of schools of different sizes to judge whether the formulae were suitable.

The Appointment Process

The case studies provided a number of examples of the ways schools had become involved in the appointment process. Generally this concerned only ancillary staff but at Dennis Technical School the deputy and principal positions were locally appointed. The previous section argued for schools to have more say in the configuration of their staffing allocation, and the evidence from case studies would suggest also that schools, through locally appointed boards or councils, should complement this suggestion with more say in the actual appointment process.

The main issue at stake here is just how far such a process should develop. The evidence suggested that with respect to ancillary and senior appointments procedures had developed sufficiently to endorse these approaches. If the process were to spread to all staff there would need to be certain safeguards built into the system. Already, certain schools and certain areas are more attractive than others. If schools become the appointing bodies for all staff there is a danger that the staffing of some schools would be made increasingly difficult. A system of incentives might be a possibility as might a system whereby all staff had to fulfil a certain proportion of their teaching in designated schools or areas. Such issues are discussed more fully by McKenzie and Keeves (1982) in a companion volume.

Regardless of whether the appointment process changes or not, one of the key aspects of staffing schools is to ensure that schools receive the necessary experienced staff members. In Chapter 11, the problems of staffing small district high schools were mentioned and in earlier chapters the unique problems of Clarke Primary School located in an isolated part of one State were documented. Such schools often find themselves with a large number of inexperienced teachers, and often with relatively inexperienced senior members of staff also. The impressions from the visits suggested that greater efforts should be made to devise ways to attract at least a proportion of experienced staff to such schools so that they can provide additional educational guidance and leadership, as well as to be better equipped to tackle the varied problems of teaching in such situations. Where, however, schools are staffed almost exclusively with inexperienced teachers the position of the principal becomes a very important one. The more experienced the senior staff members, the greater is the scope to provide staff development to the inexperienced teachers. This was especially noticeable at Mansfield where the principal had the confidence to delegate responsibilities to other staff members whereas at Clarke the senior members of staff had instigated a fairly structured approach to meet the problems of staff characteristics. Admittedly, Clarke was also faced with a much larger school than Mansfield. It is accepted, that education systems do not have complete control over allocating staff to particular locations but evidence from visits suggested the necessity for devising means of attracting more experienced teachers to certain areas. One possibility would be to require teachers to

have two or three years teaching in designated areas but not in their first three years of teaching.

At a more general level, the position of the principal in schools and to some extent especially in primary schools (see Chapter 10) was found to be of great importance. In fact, the role of all staff members in middle-management positions was very important. The selection and training of such people therefore becomes a critical issue.

School Structures

Discussions in previous chapters raised the problems that schools have in providing the very wide curriculum range necessary for senior students where only a small number of such students are at school. Invariably, schools have had to 'borrow' resources from earlier years to service Years 11 and 12 with the corresponding lack of flexibility that this produces in earlier years. As one response to this problem, in two education systems, secondary or community colleges have been initiated, and in other systems some experimental colleges have been established or recommended. It is impossible to generalize from the basis of one visit to one such college, but in visits to all secondary schools the problem of providing individualized instruction for senior students was ever present. In Chapter 11 the concept of the secondary college was discussed. The TEND Committee Report (Tasmania. Education Department, 1978) has also discussed the appropriate school structures for Tasmania. In essence this committee recommended a rural and an urban pattern. With respect to the rural pattern it was recommended that appropriately placed schools should be extended to Years 11 and 12, whereas for the urban centres the establishment of community colleges was recommended. Such colleges would combine vocational education, general education and adult education. With respect to the combination of adult education with other education the committee noted:

> We think it appropriate to combine this work in the same institution with higher secondary level vocational and general education because much of it appears to us to be of the same standard and to cover many of the areas of adult interest. We think also that it is good educational policy for young adults of 16-20 to become accustomed to working in a college with facilities for adults to which they can expect to return from time to time for further education. (Tasmania. Education Department, 1978:79-80)

The concept of recurrent education and enabling young adults to work with adults is an interesting development. The debate over the transition from school to work has often argued the need both for recurrent education, and for making the school structures more suitable to maturing senior students who have become disillusioned with the traditional school structure. There is little doubt that there is scope for changes in the traditional school's curriculum or organization to take account of this but the development of alternative structures seems likely to provide an added flexibility.

Community colleges and secondary colleges are but two possible responses. The

aim of these developments is primarily to provide an individualized instructional course for students. In effect, this may require even more flexibility than the creation of new institutions, involving perhaps more interchange between schools and other educational or occupational institutions. To meet the needs of students in post-compulsory education, it may be necessary to challenge the assumption that schools, colleges or other educational institutions should be the prime educational focus for all students. One alternative course described earlier, for example, involved students in considerable extra school activities.

In any rethinking of educational structures the position of rural students is especially important. The concept of colleges, if applied in rural areas, would involve considerable travel and boarding for some students (a situation which already exists in some States which operate K-10 district high schools) and, interestingly in recognition of this problem, the TEND Committee advocated a dual rural/urban pattern.

School-Community Links

As was reported in Chapters 8 and 10, there is growing support for the concept of community participation and involvement in the school program and the policy determination processes. In some ways the Tasmanian idea of the community college is a development of this view. Previous chapters of this report have shown the problems involved in effective school-community links, and advocates of such links have rarely attempted to provide adequate strategies for initiating community-school interrelationships.

The evidence from the case studies suggested that school-community contact was most easily initiated in the primary school sector. Most likely this is a reflection of the willingness of teachers to enable parents to remain close to their young children, and the greater desire of such parents to do so than would be the case in secondary schools. Nevertheless, it appeared from the case studies that where parents had been welcomed into the school to assist in aspects of the school program its overall school-community relationship was healthier. It is perhaps the case that parents' confidence in their input to school affairs is more likely to develop from such involvement rather than be encouraged through formalized committee structures. This is not to deny the value of the latter only to raise the question of how best to generate real community participation.

On the whole, the secondary schools had failed to generate the close community-school links which are being advocated and for which many schools strive. At one school however a Learning Assistance Program had been initiated and with parental help this had generated some very small instructional groups. There were also several examples in the primary sector of such involvement to generate those small groups.

The case study visits could not provide guidelines for effective school-community liaison. Rather, they raised the problems and the benefits to be gained from seeking such involvement. Certainly, if such a close relationship is to be endorsed, the time has come to think a little more about how to generate effective cross-sectional liaison.

Resource Allocation in Schools

Sub-schools

In Chapter 6, consideration was given to the concept of sub-schools and the rationale for the establishment of such structures. In Chapter 9, the use of sub-schools to generate pastoral care was discussed. Apart from pastoral care provision examples were given of sub-schools used to generate alternative curriculum structures or teaching styles, to develop co-operative teaching styles, or to devolve administrative responsibility. This report has not sought to evaluate the concept of a sub-school because the visits to schools provided only a few examples of very different sorts of structures. Nevertheless, one or two issues can be raised.

Although the extent of the necessity for extra resources to set up a sub-school structure in a school would vary from one school to the next depending on the type of structure, it would appear from evidence of two schools which had initiated comprehensive sub-school structures that extra resources are required in the form of at least clerical assistance and time allowances for sub-school co-ordinators. Whether departments or schools provide the extra resources is a matter for debate, but it should be noted that any form of welfare provision requires resources: schools have to allocate time to the provision of welfare as opposed to other duties. In addition, sub-schools require careful co-ordination to ensure that they do not operate as completely independent units, and this requires the appointment of special positions or special duties. It would seem from the visits that this is not too great a problem, although one school had failed to achieve satisfactory cross school co-ordination. In any case, this should not be seen as an extra duty because there was sufficient evidence to suggest that traditional schools also required various forms of internal co-ordination. The need is to ensure a school-wide integrated policy and whatever structure is adopted careful planning is required.

Another, possibly more important, factor that needs to be taken into account is the danger of internal incompatibilities with respect to school philosophies. In Chapter 9, the problem of providing wide curriculum choice and extensive specialist staffing inside small schools was noted. This applies equally to sub-schools. If the school wishes to provide a broad-ranging education as well as extensive pastoral care, as was the case at Lindsay, it might need to consider basing its curriculum on term electives which were the pattern at Lawson and Kendall. Otherwise it seems unlikely that all optional

subjects can take place inside sub-school boundaries. Similarly, if departments in the school require a number of ability groups it is also possible that this could counter the successful operation of sub-schools. Such problems occurred in one school; they need not necessarily occur in all schools and they do not necessarily deny the value of the sub-school structure. They merely limit it.

Student Groupings

Chapter 6 documented in detail the practices of the schools with respect to student groupings and it is inappropriate to repeat in detail the discussions of that chapter. In many respects practices reflected the views of teachers. Where staff members were unused to composite, compatibility or heterogeneous groupings they tended not to wish to try them. In some schools composite classes are a necessity given present staffing formulae which does not allow for single year level teaching in all schools. The discussion in Chapter 6 provides some possible suggestions for composite grouping and the visit to the schools supported the notion that such groupings, and in particular the type initiated at Mansfield, can be used to generate meaningful relationships between students, which can assist in the teaching context.

It was interesting that few secondary schools had initiated composite groupings of students. There were exceptions, however. At both Kendall (Years 11 and 12) and Lawson (Years 8-10) composite classes had been formed. At Kendall, a two-year college, this reflected (as it did also at Pritchard, the two-year intermediate school) the need to integrate the school as a whole. More importantly, at both schools it was argued that composite classes made more economic use of resources and better provided for individualized instruction. With respect to Years 11 and 12, the system in which the college was located had made reforms with respect to matriculation requirements which had lessened the constraints that schools sometimes operated under, and if similar groupings in secondary schools were to be applied (as opposed to the development of a college structure), consideration would need to be given to such constraints.

The traditional opposition to composite grouping in secondary schools suggests that secondary education is a sequential approach moving from entry through to matriculation with the gradual increase in skills learned, and that this sequential approach is best met with the grouping of students that is compatible with their intellectual development. However, the structures developed at Lawson and Kendall did not contradict this approach; rather, through the development of a number of units of varying difficulty they enabled a matching of the intellectual potentialities of students to the units or courses offered.

Teacher Groupings

Previous chapters of this report referred both to the grouping of teachers for instructional purposes and for providing team support in, say, the development of

curricula material. In the primary sector the use of co-operative teaching or paired teaching techniques for instructional purposes was generally well viewed, providing teachers had some influence over the teacher or teachers with whom they co-operated. The flexibility provided by such an approach appeared more limited the less open the spacing arrangements and the smaller the school. Even where such techniques had not been used for instructional purposes, in both primary and secondary schools the value of syndicates or teams and faculties or departments in providing teacher support and guidance was well viewed. In the secondary sector, the concept of the faculty is well established but it was interesting how valuable such teacher groupings were considered in a number of the primary schools visited. In effect the teams in these schools were in some ways breaking down the traditional view of primary teaching as being one-teacher-one-classroom.

Another interesting development in the primary sector was the extent to which specialist teaching had been incorporated into the program, either through the appointment of trained specialists or through the use, across the school, of the attributes of different staff. Although a number of teachers still adopted the view that classroom teachers should be specialist teachers also, a number of schools not allocated specialist staff had provided flexible groupings to make use of staff qualities. Whether primary schools should be staffed with specialist teachers in addition to class teachers is not easy to answer. At present, if schools do not receive extra staffing which could possibly have taken the form of extra specialists, there would appear to be an argument for allowing schools greater flexibility in choosing their staff configuration to match their philosophical approaches.

Although at the secondary level the allocation of teachers to classes was often determined by the specialist training of staff, it was noticeable that few schools, primary or secondary, had attempted any sophisticated matching of the attributes of particular teachers to particular classes. At Mansfield where this was done the advantages were noticeable.

Non-contact Time

In general, in the schools visited, primary school teachers did not have a great deal of non-contact time. A very considerable amount of work performed by primary school teachers was conducted after school hours. If, however, it is accepted that systems should build into their allocation formulae a non-contact component, the issue becomes the method by which it is achieved in primary schools which have traditionally operated on a one-teacher-one-class concept.

In Chapter 7 five methods of devising non-contact time were discussed:

- use of specialist staff;
- use of administrative staff;

- use of a teacher designated to provide non-contact time;
- use of a support teacher;
- team teaching or paired teaching techniques.

Generally, all of these schemes had their advantages and disadvantages. Team teaching led to very large class groups for certain activities, and some schools of course did not have the spaces required, the use of the support teacher lessened his support role, the use of a designated non-contact teacher created for that teacher a difficult role, and the use of administrative staff lessened the other administrative duties they could perform. The most common practice was to take non-contact time at times when students were engaged in specialist lessons. The problem with this approach is that to some extent it devalues the importance of such lessons. It does this in two ways: first, specialist teachers expressed the view that, where class teachers attended lessons, students viewed the lessons as more important, and second, specialist staff can only provide a limited amount of specialist tuition to the students of the school, especially in the larger schools and if class teachers are to extend this tuition they are better placed to do so if they attend the specialist classes.

Of the methods used to create non-contact time, only the pairing or team teaching technique did not require the use of staff additional to class teachers. At some schools, the staff were opposed to such a practice as they felt it diminished the benefits of individualized instruction. It is possible, however, that certain activities at schools could be performed in large groups without the same need for this individualized approach.

Although many secondary school staff expressed the need for additional non-contact time, most often to meet specified school management roles rather than for class-related management as was the case in the primary schools, the view taken here is that the issue is of critical importance in the primary sector. In the secondary sector it was interesting how the extra non-contact time available to staff had enabled their increased involvement in school management duties. This does perhaps raise the issue of staff development in such areas.

Class Sizes

The research literature on class sizes reviewed in Chapter 7 stressed the need for very small groupings to maximize educational benefits. Such groupings would require flexible use of staff within schools rather than the equal distribution of students to classes. The extent to which this was done in schools and the methods used to achieve it varied greatly.

In some systems, the education department or teacher union guidelines on class sizes or non-contact time so restricted schools, and this was especially so in the secondary sector, that such internal flexibility was not made possible. At other schools however this was not the case. In primary schools four methods had been adopted to provide small group instruction:

- flexibility through paired or co-operative teaching;
- the use of members of staff not allocated to classes;
- the use of parents;
- the use of students as tutors.

In all cases, schools were favourably disposed towards the effects of such small groupings and in one case the school was prepared to see class sizes at some times during the day rise to well over 30, so as to operate a one-to-one reading scheme. Another school was located in a system which allowed schools to have considerable say in the allocation of staff members. In this way it was able to make a judgment about which areas of the program it wished to stress, and if it formed small groups in such areas it had the relevant specialist staff to teach in those areas also.

The issue of class sizes was a little different in the secondary sector as it was closely related to the extent to which schools allowed for elective or optional subjects to be incorporated into the timetable. Very often it was the student choice that dictated the very small groups rather than a school educational philosophy. Remedial teaching would, of course, be an exception as would the alternative courses offered at senior years. In this respect, the concept of the senior college is important as it makes more efficient use of resources - very small classes are less likely as more students are available - and involves no intra-school borrowing of resources from earlier years.

Two schools had adopted interesting responses to create small groups. At Palmer, the Learning Assistance Program involved students and parents and at Lindsay the Remedial Reading Task Force involved members of staff without a full timetable. Both schemes have been discussed more fully in earlier chapters.

School Policy Determination and Implementation Processes

In discussing the conceptual framework for this report the argument was made that the policy determination processes in schools were likely to be as important as the actual teaching or curricular structures of the schools. The case study visits confirm this theoretical stance. Chapter 10 of the report examines in detail these processes, both the involvement of the staff, students, and the community in these processes and the efficiency of the actual structures themselves.

Just as the involvement of the community discussed earlier was found to be more problematic than was at first anticipated, so was the involvement of students. Yet for different reasons, outlined in previous chapters, there are good grounds for involving both groups, although student involvement in primary schools would be less likely. It would seem that if schools are to consider seriously the involvement of students and community personnel in decision-making structures, they must accept that it would be a

gradual process which would involve a training element, training representatives in the procedures of committees and the like. At Palmer, the unscheduled time system discussed in Chapter 9 was aimed at involving students in making decisions and it may be that these structures are useful prerequisites to more formalized involvement in policy.

The involvement of the staff was a different issue. At many secondary schools, formal democratic structures of decision making had been incorporated, and at Palmer the principal had relinquished his power of veto. It was argued that not only did this generate greater staff commitment but also enabled very useful ideas to be brought forward by less senior members of staff. Teacher satisfaction in schools operating more democratic decision-making structures appeared to be higher. In the primary schools the role of the principal and senior staff members seemed to be of more importance in the policy process. Although many schools would take account of different views among staff members, it was rare for structures to be formalized. To some extent this reflected the preference of teachers to be involved in issues relating to their teaching as opposed to school-wide issues. Without wanting to preclude the involvement of primary school class teachers in school-wide policy, the case study visits would support the view that, first of all, teachers require structures to formalize their input into the teaching process, for example syndicates or curriculum committees.

In discussing the actual structures for policy implementation, special mention was made in Chapter 10 of the process of generating aims, processes of staff development, and processes of evaluation of school aims. The argument was made that, although some schools with very specific and well thought-out aims had not documented these aims, on the whole schools, both primary and secondary, should treat more seriously the processes of generating statements of aims as well as providing staff development and evaluation of these aims. With respect to evaluation a twofold strategy was suggested to encourage schools to make use of outside assistance:

- every 3-5 years schools should undergo a thorough school review with outside assistance;
- intermittent individual evaluations of specific structures with outside assistance should be encouraged.

The outside assistance referred to could involve college personnel or departmental personnel. The value of education department evaluation booklets such as those produced in Victoria or Queensland was discussed. In essence what was being argued was that schools had a responsibility to develop objectives for their schools and attempt to evaluate to what extent they were achieving such objectives. It is accepted that the role of all the staff is very much an evaluative role, and it is argued that schools should seek ways to involve staff in the process of implementing and evaluating policies. It is also argued that a more formal outside review could greatly assist schools in policy determination.

Conclusion

This report has sought to describe practices in 16 specially selected schools in an attempt to offer guidelines to education departments and schools. It needs to be stressed that these were 16 carefully chosen schools and much of the value of the descriptions documented is dependent upon the extent to which educational administrators, both in schools and outside, recognize similarities in their circumstances compared with the schools described. Notwithstanding this warning, the preceding discussion in this chapter has attempted to highlight some more general issues arising from this research.

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